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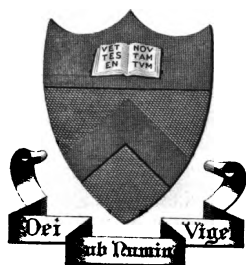
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PROCEEDINGS
OF
THE FIRST ANNUAL CONVENTION
OF
THE ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES
AND
PREPARATORY SCHOOLS
IN THE
Middle States and Maryland

HELD AT COLUMBIA COLLEGE, NEW YORK,
DECEMBER 1 AND 2, 1893

Note: A later change in covering
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Annual Convention

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1894

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INSTITUTIONS ON THE ROLL OF MEMBERSHIP

OF THE

Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of Middle States and Maryland.

COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES.

<i>Institution.</i>	<i>Location.</i>	<i>President.</i>
Allegheny Coll.,	Meadville, Pa.,	W. H. Crawford, A. M.
Bucknell Univ.,	Lewisburg, Pa.,	John H. Harris, D. D.
Bryn Mawr Coll.,	Bryn Mawr, Pa.,	J. E. Rhoads, LL. D.
Catholic Univ. of Am.,	Washington, D. C.,	Rt. Rev. J. J. Keane.
Colgate Univ.,	Hamilton, N. Y.,	W. L. Andrews, LL. D.
Columbia Coll.,	New York City,	Seth Low, LL. D.
Columbian Univ.,	Washington, D. C.,	J. C. Wellington, LL. D.
Cornell Univ.,	Ithaca, N. Y.,	J. G. Schurman, LL. D.
Dickinson Coll.,	Carlisle, Pa.,	G. E. Reed, D. D.
Delaware Coll.,	Newark, Del.,	A. N. Raub, Ph. D.
Franklin & Marshall Coll.,	Lancaster, Pa.,	J. S. Stahr, D. D.
Georgetown Coll.,	Georgetown, D. C.,	Rev. J. H. Richards.
Haverford Coll.,	Haverford, Pa.,	I. Sharpless, LL. D.
Hobart Coll.,	Geneva, N. Y.,	
Howard Univ.,	Washington, D. C.,	J. E. Rankin, LL. D.
Johns Hopkins Univ.,	Baltimore, Md.,	D. C. Gilman, LL. D.
Lafayette Coll.,	Easton, Pa.,	E. Warfield, LL. D.
Lebanon Valley Coll.,	Annville, Pa.,	E. B. Bierman, D. D.
Lehigh Univ.,	South Bethlehem, Pa.,	
Muhlenberg Coll.,	Allentown, Pa.,	T. L. Seip, D. D.
Nat'l Deaf Mute Coll.,	Washington, D. C.,	E. H. Gallaudet, LL. D.
Penna. State Coll.,	State College, Pa.,	G. W. Atherton, LL. D.
Princeton Coll.,	Princeton, N. J.,	F. L. Patton, LL. D.
Rutgers Coll.,	New Brunswick, N. J.,	Austin Scott, LL. D.
St. John's Coll.,	Annapolis, Md.,	Thos. Fell, LL. D.
St. Stephen's Coll.,	Annandale, N. Y.,	R. B. Fairbairn, D. D.
Swarthmore Coll.,	Swarthmore, Pa.,	C. DeGarmo, Ph. D.
Syracuse Univ.,	Syracuse, N. Y.,	C. S. Sims, D. D.
Union Coll.,	Schenectady, N. Y.,	H. E. Webster, LL. D.
Univ. of City of N. Y.,	New York City,	H. M. McCracken, LL. D.
Univ. of Pennsylvania,	Philadelphia, Pa.,	Wm. Pepper, LL. D.
Univ. of Rochester,	Rochester, N. Y.,	D. H. Hill, LL. D.
Univ. of State of N. Y.,	Albany, N. Y.,	Sec. Melvil Dewey.

<i>Institution.</i>	<i>Location.</i>	<i>President.</i>
Ursinus Coll.,	Collegeville, Pa.,	H. T. Spangler, D. D.
Vassar Coll.,	Poughkeepsie, N. Y.,	J. M. Taylor, LL.D.
Washington Coll.,	Chestertown, Md.,	C. W. Reid, D. D.
Washington and Jefferson Coll.	Washington, Pa.,	J. D. Moffat, D. D.
Western Univ. of Pa.,	Allegheny, Pa.,	W. J. Holland, D. D.

ACADEMIES AND PREPARATORY SCHOOLS.

<i>Institution.</i>	<i>Location.</i>	<i>Principal.</i>
Academy of the Sacred Heart.	Syracuse, N. Y.,	J. F. Mullany.
Adelphi Academy,	Brooklyn, N. Y.,	C. H. Levermore, Ph. D.
Albany Academy,	Albany, N. Y.,	H. P. Warren.
Boys' High School,	Reading Pa.,	M. E. Scheibner.
Blair's Presbyterian Academy.	Blairtown, N. J.,	W. S. Eversole, Ph. D.
Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute.	Brooklyn, N. Y.,	D. H. Cochran.
Cathedral School of St. Paul's.	Garden City, L. I.,	F. L. Gamage.
Central High School,	Pittsburgh, Pa.,	C. B. Wood.
Cheltenham Academy,	Ogontz, Pa.,	J. C. Rice.
Colgate Academy,	Hamilton, N. Y.,	C. H. Thurber, A. B.
Collegiate School,	241 W. 77th st., New York City.	L. C. Mygatt.
Conference Academy,	Dover, Del.,	W. L. Gooding.
The Cutler School,	20 E. 50th st., New York City.	A. H. Cutler.
Dearborn-Morgan School.	Orange, N. J.,	D. A. Kennedy, Ph. D.
Eastburn Academy,	700 N. Broad st., Philadelphia, Pa.	Geo. Eastburn, Ph. D.
Frederick Academy,	Frederick, Md.,	Miss L. S. Tilton.
Friends' Central High School.	15th and Race sts., Philadelphia, Pa.	G. L. Maris.
Friends' Elementary and High School.	Baltimore, Md.,	E. M. Lamb.
Friends' Seminary,	Rutherford Place, New York City.	E. A. H. Allen, C. E.
Friends' Select School,	140 N. 16th st., Philadelphia, Pa.	J. H. Bartlett.
Friends' School,	Wilmington, Del.,	I. T. Johnson.
Friends' Select School,	Washington, D. C.,	T. W. Sidwell.
First Pennsylvania State Normal School.	Millersville, Pa.,	E. O. Lyte.
Germantown Academy,	Germantown, Pa.,	Wm. Kershaw, Ph. D.

<i>Institution.</i>	<i>Location.</i>	<i>Principal.</i>
Harvard School,	578 Fifth ave., New York City.	W. Freeland.
Kingston Academy,	Kingston, N. Y.,	H. W. Callahan.
Manhattan Coll.,	Grand Boulevard and 131st st., New York City.	Bro. Justin, F. S. C.
Geo. F. Martin's School for Boys,	39th and Locust sts., Philadelphia, Pa.	G. F. Martin.
Montclair Public School.	Montclair, N. J.,	R. Spaulding.
J. H. Morse's School,	423 Madison ave., New York City.	J. H. Morse.
Newark Academy,	Newark, N. J.,	S. A. Farrand, Ph.D.
Newark Public High School.	Newark, N. J.,	E. O. Hovey.
The Oxford School for Boys.	110 W. 79th st., New York City.	L. Kemp-Prosser.
Rittenhouse Academy,	Chestnut and 18th sts., Philadelphia, Pa.	E. A. Waples, A. M.
Rutgers Preparatory Academy.	New Brunswick, N. J.,	E. R. Payson.
School of Mr. F. G. Ireland.	25 W. 42d st., New York City.	F. G. Ireland.
State Normal School,	West Chester, Pa.,	G. M. Philips, Ph. D.
State Normal School,	Bloomsburg, Pa.,	J. P. Welsh, A. M.
State Model School,	Trenton, N. J.,	J. M. Green.
Staten Island Academy and Latin School.	Stapleton, L. I.,	F. E. Partington.
Yonkers High School,	Yonkers, N. Y.,	H. H. Gadsby.
Sachs' Collegiate Institute.	38 W. 59th st., New York City.	Dr. Julius Sachs.
Titusville High School,	Titusville, Pa.,	Letitia M. Wetson.
Woman's Coll.,	Baltimore, Md.,	J. F. Goucher.

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JAMES M. TAYLOR,
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GEORGE W. ATHERTON,
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CHARLES E. HART,
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ALBERT N. RAUB,
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Professor University of the City of New York, N. Y.

J. MACBRIDE STERRETT,
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EDWARD H. GRIFFIN,
Professor Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

SECRETARY :

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS,
Professor University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

TREASURER :

JOHN B. KIEFFER,
Professor Franklin and Marshall College, Lancaster, Pa.

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ALLAN MARQUAND,
Professor Princeton College, New Jersey.

CHARLES DE GARMO,
President Swarthmore College, Pennsylvania.

D. C. GILMAN,
President Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

OFFICERS FOR 1893-94.

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FRANCIS L. PATTON,
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VICE-PRESIDENTS :

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Newark Academy.

W. J. HOLLAND,
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JOHN QUINCY ADAMS,
Professor University of Pennsylvania.

TREASURER :

JOHN B. KIEFFER,
Professor Franklin and Marshall College.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE :

THE PRESIDENT, SECRETARY, TREASURER AND

HERBERT B. ADAMS,
Professor Johns Hopkins University.

NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER,
Professor Columbia College.

ISAAC SHARPLESS,
President Haverford College.

J. MACBRIDE STERRETT,
Professor Columbian University.

**Sketch of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory
Schools of the Middle States and Maryland,
From its Origin in 1887 to 1894.**

The Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland has grown so rapidly, and extended its boundaries so much beyond its original territory, that but few of its present members know its origin and history. It seems well, therefore, to give a sketch of its development.

In the winter of 1887, President Edward H. Magill, of Swarthmore College, delivered a lecture at various colleges in the State of Pennsylvania on "The Importance of a College Education for Teachers in our Public Schools."

While visiting the colleges for this purpose he consulted their presidents as to the feasibility of calling a meeting of college authorities, with the objects of establishing closer relations with one another, and procuring certain legislation in favor of educational institutions tending to this result.

Pursuant to a call issued by Presidents, T. G. Apple, of Franklin and Marshall; J. H. M. Knox, of Lafayette, and E. H. Magill, of Swarthmore College, a number of representatives of the colleges of Pennsylvania met at Harrisburg March 1, 1887. The object of this meeting, as stated in the call, was "to seek at the hands of the present legislature the passage of a new act * * * to render impossible the further taxation of any property of institutions of learning, etc." In addition to the above, which may be called the primary object of the conference, it was tacitly understood among a number of college presidents that an effort should be made to form a permanent organization. Accordingly, near the close of the first session President Magill presented the subject of organizing a permanent college association. A constitution, prepared and presented by him, was thoroughly discussed, and a committee of seven, consisting of Presidents, Magill, of Swarthmore College; Apple, of Franklin and Marshall; Ferguson, of Westminster; Knox, of Lafayette; McKnight, of Pennsylvania

College; Moffat, of Washington and Jefferson, and Seip, of Muhlenberg, was appointed to arrange for completing the organization at a meeting to be called by them at some future day.

This Committee on Organization issued a call for a meeting to be held at Franklin and Marshall College July 5, 1887. All college faculties of the State were invited to participate. Fifteen colleges responded to the call and sent delegates to the meeting. The report of the Committee on Permanent Organization was heard and the Constitution proposed by them was adopted with some amendments.

Sections 1 and 2, Article I, of this Constitution are as follows:

ARTICLE I.

NAME AND OBJECT.

SECTION 1. The name of this Association shall be THE COLLEGE ASSOCIATION OF PENNSYLVANIA.

SEC. 2. The object of this Association shall be to consider the qualifications for candidates for admission to the colleges and the methods of admission; the character of the preparatory schools; the courses of study to be pursued in the colleges, including their order, number, etc.; the relative number of required and elective studies in the various classes; the kind and character of degrees conferred; methods of college organization, government, etc.; the relation of the colleges to the State, and to the general educational systems of the State and country; and any and all other questions affecting the welfare of the colleges, or calculated to secure their proper advancement.

The expenses of holding the meetings of the Association, conducting the correspondence, printing, etc., were to be equally assessed upon the colleges represented in the Association.

Following the work of organization, papers were read by Dr. E. H. Magill, Dr. T. G. Apple and Dr. E. J. James.

The following are the officers of the Association for the year 1887-88: President, T. G. Apple, D.D., LL.D., Franklin and Marshall College, Lancaster, Pa.; Vice-President, E. H. Magill, LL.D., Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa.; Recording Secretary, E. S. Breidenbaugh, Sc.D., Pennsylvania College, Gettysburg, Pa.; Corresponding Secretary, J. D. Moffat, D.D., Washington and Jefferson College, Washington, Pa.; Treasurer, E. J. James, Ph.D., University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.; Executive Committee, in addition to the above officers *ex officio*; *Chairman*, T. L. Seip, D.D., Muhlenberg College, Allentown, Pa.; John Mitchell, A.M., Westminster

College, New Wilmington, Pa.; R. B. Youngman, Ph. D., Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.; E. A. Frost, A. M., Western University, Pittsburgh, Pa.

At a meeting of the Executive Committee held at the University of Pennsylvania in November following, a committee consisting of Provost William Pepper, University of Pennsylvania; President Sharpless, Haverford College; Professor Richards, Muhlenberg; Professor March, Lafayette; Professor Dubbs, Franklin and Marshall, was appointed on "Uniformity of Requirements for Admission to College," to confer with the Committee of the Schoolmasters' Association upon this subject. This committee was also requested to confer with colleges of the Middle States and Maryland upon this subject and to invite their co-operation.

At the second meeting of the committee held in February, 1888, at the University of Pennsylvania, the following action was taken, viz.: "A desire having been expressed by various members of the Association to have the colleges of the Middle States and Maryland meet with us at the coming annual convention, it was decided to send them invitations to be present and take part in our deliberations, with a view to the formation of a general organization of the colleges of these States."

The second annual convention was held at the University of Pennsylvania in July, 1888. At this meeting the name was changed to the "College Association of the Middle States and Maryland," and the Constitution was changed so as to make eligible to membership any college in the States included in its name.

This convention devoted much time to the discussion of "Endowments," and an able paper on this subject was read by Dr. J. G. Fitch, M. A., LL. D., of London, England.

The first annual convention of the Association, after its reorganization, was held at the University of Pennsylvania the Friday and Saturday following Thanksgiving Day, 1889. Since that time the Association has held its annual conventions on these days.

The Executive Committee, at its first meeting, recommended to circulate the minutes among the preparatory schools.

The aim of the Association has been to unite the educational interests within its territory. In order to do this most effectively it was long felt by the leading educators of these States that the colleges and preparatory schools must co-operate. Papers developing this idea were read and the subject was brought out in the discussions; e. g., at the first annual convention, Professor Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia College, read a paper on "The Duty of the University to the Common Schools," and at the third annual convention, Professor George T.

Ettinger, of Muhlenberg College, read a paper on "The Relations and Duties of Colleges to their Preparatory Schools."

At this third annual convention, held at Cornell University, in 1891, several preparatory schools were represented and the question of admitting such schools to membership came up in a definite shape by the application for membership in the Association of "New York College for Training Teachers," which was referred to the Executive Committee and also the question of admitting preparatory schools to membership, and it was requested that said committee report on the same at the next convention. Accordingly, at the fourth annual convention of the Association, held at Swarthmore College, in November, 1892, Professor Magill, on behalf of the Executive Committee, recommended the following action: "That we favor such a change in our Constitution and By-Laws as shall make the body representative of all universities, colleges, normal and high schools and other schools which prepare students for college within the bounds of the Middle States and Maryland." The report was accepted and the proposed resolutions adopted, and the Executive Committee empowered to make the necessary changes in the language of the Constitution.

During the year 1892-93, forty-four preparatory schools, having been approved by the Executive Committee, were admitted to membership.

Article VI of the Constitution has been changed, so that the expenses are now paid by an annual fee of \$5 from each institution represented in the Association.

At present (January, 1894), the Association has eighty-two institutions on its roll of membership, of which thirty-eight are colleges and universities and forty-four secondary schools. Its proceedings are published annually.

The following is a list of the publications of the Association, together with the titles of the papers contained therein:

History of the Organization and the Proceedings of the First Convention of the College Association of Pennsylvania, held at Franklin and Marshall College, Lancaster, Pa., July 5 and 6, 1887. J. B. Lippincott Company, 1887.

"The Proper Relation of Colleges to the Educational Institutions of the State." President E. H. Magill, Swarthmore College.

"The Idea of a Liberal Education." Dr. T. G. Apple, Franklin and Marshall College.

* "American University." Professor E. J. James, University of Pennsylvania.

* Not published in the proceedings.

Proceedings of the Second Annual Convention of the College Association of Pennsylvania, held at the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, July 5 and 6, 1888, and its Reorganization as the College Association of the Middle States and Maryland. Globe Printing House, 1888.

- "A Collegiate Education." Professor Enoch Perrine, Bucknell University.
- "Higher Education." Provost Wm. Pepper, University of Pennsylvania.
- "Relations of the College to the University." President Magill, Swarthmore College.
- "Endowments." Dr. J. G. Fitch, London, England.
- "The Place of History in a College Course." Professor W. P. Holcomb, Swarthmore College.
- * "The Study of English." Professor Perrine.

Proceedings of the First Annual Convention of the College Association of the Middle States and Maryland, held at the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, November 29 and 30, 1889. Globe Printing House, 1890.

- "The Place of Technical Instruction in Our Colleges and Universities." President C. K. Adams, Cornell University.
- "Combination of University Training with Technical Education." President Isaac Sharpless, Haverford College.
- "Study of English Classics for Admission to College." Professor F. A. March, Lafayette College.
- "College Students who are not Candidates for a Degree." Professor Allen Marquand, Princeton College.
- "Relation of Pedagogy to the University." Professor Jerome Allen, University of the City of New York.
- * "The Duty of the University to the Common Schools." Professor Nicholas Murray Butler, Columbia College.
- "The Duty of the College to its Students." Professor Wm. A. Lambertson, University of Pennsylvania.
- "The University in Modern Life." Provost Pepper, University of Pennsylvania.
- "The Degree of A. B." Dean Edward H. Griffen, Johns Hopkins University.
- "The Value of the Bachelor's Degree." President Merrill E. Gates, Rutgers College.
- "The Fellowship System in American Colleges." Professor Henry F. Osborn, Princeton College.
- "The System of Admission by Certificate." Professor Horatio S. White, Dean of Cornell University.
- "The Philosophical Faculty in the United States." Professor Munroe Smith, Columbia College.
- "The Right Reform of Examinations." Professor J. Rendell Harris, Haverford College.

Proceedings of the Second Annual Convention of the College Association of the Middle States and Maryland, held at Princeton College, N. J., November 28 and 29, 1890. Globe Printing House, 1891.

* Not published in the proceedings.

"The Co-ordination of Colleges and Universities." President C. K. Adams, Cornell University.

"The Shortening of the College Curriculum." President D. C. Gilman, Johns Hopkins University.

Same Topic. President Francis L. Patton, Princeton College.

"The Teaching of Philosophy in American Colleges." Professor Thomas Hughes, St. Francis Xavier's College.

"The Educational Value of College Studies." Professor Simon L. Patten, University of Pennsylvania.

"University Extension." Provost William Pepper, University of Pennsylvania.

Same Topic. President Seth Low, Columbia College.

Same Topic. Commissioner W. T. Harris.

"Problems in Higher Education." President James C. Welling. Columbian University, Washington, D. C.

"The Idea and Scope of a Faculty of Philosophy." Bishop John J. Keane, Rector of the Catholic University of America.

"The Taxation of College Property." President T. L. Seip, Muhlenberg College.

"The Place of the English Bible in the College Curriculum." President George Edward Reed, Dickinson College.

"The Ideal College Education." Professor J. G. Schurman, Cornell University.

"Inductive Work in College Classes." Professor F. H. Stoddard, University of the City of New York.

"The Relation of the Colleges to the Modern Library Movement." Melvil Dewey, Secretary of the University of the State of New York.

"The Moral and Religious Oversight of Students." Dr. James McCosh, Princeton College.

Proceedings of the Third Annual Convention of the College Association of the Middle States and Maryland, held at Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y., November 27 and 28, 1891.

"The True Scope of College Discipline." Professor Jacob Cooper, Rutgers College.

"The Scope of Modern Languages in Our Colleges and the Best Methods of Teaching Them." Ex-President Magill, Swarthmore College.

"The Aim and Scope of the Study of Modern Languages and Methods of Teaching Them." Professor O. B. Super, Dickinson College.

"The English Bible—Its Study as a Classic in Our Colleges." Professor W. R. Duryee, Rutgers College.

"The College and the People: How May They be Brought into Closer Relations?" Professor George A. Harter, Delaware College.

"The Relations and Duties of Colleges to Their Preparatory Schools." Professor George T. Ettinger, Muhlenberg College.

"On Permitting Students to Take Studies in Professional Schools while Pursuing a Regular Undergraduate Course." Professor Nicholas Murray Butler, Columbia College.

"On Allowing Undergraduate Students to Study in Professional Schools." Professor C. A. Collin, Cornell University Law School.

"Athletics and Intercollegiate Games." President Thomas Fell, St. John's College, Annapolis.

"The Position of Metaphysics in a Course of Scientific Philosophy." Professor E. A. Pace, Catholic University of Washington.

"Is it Worth While to Uphold any Longer the Idea of a Liberal Education?" President D. C. Gilman, Johns Hopkins University.

"University Extension." Professor E. J. James, University of Pennsylvania.

Proceedings of the Fourth Annual Convention of the College Association of the Middle States and Maryland, held at Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa., November 25 and 26, 1892. Educational Review, Columbia College, New York.

How can High Schools be made so uniformly efficient that their graduates may, without further preparation, enter college? "The Experience of New York State," Secretary Melvil Dewey.

Same Topic. "Proposals for the Middle States." President George W. Atherton, Pennsylvania State College.

"The Best Methods of Determining and Recording the Scholarship of Students." Dean Horace Jayne, University of Pennsylvania.

Same Topic. Professor M. H. Richards, Muhlenberg College.

"How Can the Highest Educational Efficiency be Secured for English in American Colleges?" Professor Felix E. Schelling, University of Pennsylvania.

"The Relation of English Literature to Æsthetics." Professor F. A. March, Lafayette College, Pennsylvania.

"The Scope and Function of Rhetoric and Composition." Professor Charles E. Hart, Rutgers College, New Jersey.

"College Libraries: How Best Made Available for College Uses?" Mr. George William Harris, Librarian of Cornell University.

Same Topic. Professor J. H. Morgan, Dickinson College, Pennsylvania.

"Higher Education in the United States." President Seth Low, Columbia College.

* "Geography as a Scientific Basis for the Study of History." President D. C. Gilman, Johns Hopkins University.

"Geography as a Scientific Basis for the Study of Biology." Dr. Spencer Trotter, Swarthmore College.

"To What Extent is Student Government Available as a Means of College Discipline?" Professor Merrill E. Gates, Amherst College.

Same Topic. President James M. Taylor, Vassar College.

"The Relations Between the High School, the College and the University." Secretary Melvil Dewey, University of the State of New York.

Proceedings of the First Annual Convention of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, held at Columbia College, New York, December 1 and 2, 1893. Avil Printing Company, Philadelphia, 1894.

Should the degree of Bachelor of Arts be conferred on students who have studied neither Greek nor Latin?

* Not published in the proceedings.

Papers by Professor Andrew F. West, of Princeton College, New Jersey; Secretary Melvil Dewey, of the University of the State of New York; Principal C. H. Thurber, of Colgate Academy, Hamilton, N. Y.; Principal F. L. Gammage, of the Cathedral School, Garden City, L. I.

Discussion, under the five-minute rule, by Professor Morris Loeb, of the University of the City of New York; Professor O. B. Super, of Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa.; Principal James M. Green, of the State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.

Will any kind or amount of instruction in modern languages make them satisfactory substitutes for Greek or Latin as constituents of a liberal education?

Papers by Professor H. H. Boyesen, of Columbia College, New York; Professor H. C. G. Brandt, of Hamilton College, Clinton, N. Y.; Dr. Julius Sachs, of the Collegiate Institute, New York; Principal James C. MacKenzie, of the Lawrenceville School, New Jersey.

Discussion, under the five-minute rule, opened by Professor E. H. Magill, of Swarthmore College, Pennsylvania.

President's Address. Subject: "The Neglect of the Student in Recent Educational Theory." President James M. Taylor, of Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

Work in English in the Colleges and Preparatory Schools.

Papers by President James C. Welling, of Columbian University, Washington, D. C.; Professor J. Morgan Hart, of Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.; Dr. Edward Brooks, Superintendent of Schools, Philadelphia, Pa.; Mr. Wilson Farrand, of the Newark Academy, Newark, N. J.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE FIRST ANNUAL CONVENTION
OF
THE ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND
PREPARATORY SCHOOLS
OF THE
MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND.

COLUMBIA COLLEGE, New York,
December 1, 1893.

The first annual convention of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland was called to order by the President, Dr. James M. Taylor, President of Vassar College, at 10.45 a. m. President Low, of Columbia College, welcomed the delegates, and this address was responded to by President Taylor.

At some time during the convention the following institutions were reported as represented by the delegates named :

ADELPHI ACADEMY.—Charles H. Levermore.

ALBANY ACADEMY, THE.—Henry P. Warren.

ALBANY HIGH SCHOOL.—Agnes R. Davison.

ALLEGHENY COLLEGE.—President, William H. Crawford.

BARNARD COLLEGE.—Mortimer Lamson Earle, Arthur Brooks.

BLAIR PRESBYTERIAN ACADEMY.—W. S. Eversole.

BORDENTOWN MILITARY INSTITUTE.—Thompson H. Landon.

BREWSTER UNION SCHOOL.—Henry S. Purdy.

BROOKLYN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.—William H. Maxwell.

BROWNING SCHOOL, THE.—Theodore C. Mitchell.

BUCKNELL UNIVERSITY.—John H. Harris.

CENTRAL PENNSYLVANIA COLLEGE.—A. E. Gobble.

CHELTENHAM ACADEMY.—John Calvin Rice.

COLGATE ACADEMY.—E. P. Sisson, C. H. Thurber, J. J. Brobeck.

COLGATE UNIVERSITY.—N. L. Andrews, Dean ; George W. Smith.

COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE.—Dr. Julius Sachs, Robert Metzger.

COLLEGIATE SCHOOL.—L. C. Mygatt, Filicie Bon, M. C. Richardt, Martha A. Curry,
Caroline C. Watson.

COLUMBIAN UNIVERSITY.—James C. Welling, J. Macbride Sterrett.

- COLUMBIA COLLEGE.—President Seth Low, Nicholas Murray Butler, M. D. Woodward, Adolphe Cohn, E. H. Babbett, Hermann J. Schmitz, H. A. Todd, H. L. Osgood, G. R. Carpenter, J. H. Hyslop, Charles Sears Baldwin, R. S. Woodward, F. M. Burdick, J. F. Kemp, H. H. Boyeson.
- CORNELL UNIVERSITY.—President, J. G. Schurman; Duncah Campbell Lee, William Strunk, Jr., J. M. Hart.
- CUTLER SCHOOL.—Henry L. Harrison.
- DEARBORN-MORGAN INSTITUTE.—James G. Dearborn, David A. Kennedy.
- DELAWARE COLLEGE.—George Harter, A. N. Raub, Frederic H. Robinson.
- DICKINSON COLLEGE.—O. B. Super.
- DREXEL INSTITUTE.—President, James MacAlister.
- EASTBURN ACADEMY.—George Eastburn.
- EAST ORANGE HIGH SCHOOL.—Jennie M. Davie.
- FLUSHING HIGH SCHOOL.—W. C. Ingalls.
- FRANKLIN AND MARSHALL COLLEGE.—President, John S. Starr.
- FREDERICK ACADEMY.—Lucien S. Tilton.
- FRIENDS' ACADEMY.—Franklin P. Wilson, Horace L. Dilworth.
- FRIENDS' CENTRAL SCHOOL, Philadelphia.—William W. Birdsall.
- FRIENDS' ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOL, Baltimore.—Eli M. Lamb, Caroline Roberts.
- FRIENDS' SCHOOL, Wilmington.—Isaac T. Johnson, Miss C. L. Crew, Miss C. J. Dunning, Enos L. Doah.
- FRIENDS' SELECT SCHOOL, Philadelphia.—Superintendent, J. Henry Bartlett.
- FRIENDS' SELECT SCHOOL, Washington.—Thomas W. Sidwell.
- FRIENDS' SEMINARY.—Edward A. H. Allen, E. Stover.
- GERMANTOWN ACADEMY.—Principal, Wm. Kershaw.
- HAMILTON COLLEGE.—H. C. G. Brandt.
- HAMILTON HIGH SCHOOL.—C. H. Van Tuyl.
- HAVERFORD COLLEGE.—President, Isaac Sharpless; Allen C. Thomas, W. C. Ladd.
- HOBART COLLEGE.—Milton Haight Turk.
- HUNTINGTON UNION SCHOOL.—C. J. Jennings.
- IRELAND'S SCHOOL FOR BOYS.—F. G. Ireland.
- JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.—President Daniel C. Gilman; Dean, Edward H. Griffin; L. E. Menger.
- KINGSTON ACADEMY.—Henry White Callahan.
- LANSINGBURGH ACADEMY.—C. T. R. Smith.
- LAWRENCEVILLE SCHOOL.—James C. Mackenzie, J. S. Patterson.
- LEHIGH UNIVERSITY.—C. L. Doolittle, Mansfield Merriman, S. Singer.
- LOCKPORT HIGH SCHOOL.—Edward Hayward.
- MANHATTAN COLLEGE.—Brother Chrysostom.
- MODEL SCHOOL.—John C. Leach.
- MONTCLAIR HIGH SCHOOL.—Superintendent Randall Spaulding, Eliza Howe Gilbert, William C. Gorman, Lucy Evelyn Wight.
- MONTCLAIR MILITARY ACADEMY.—C. D. Hatch.
- MUHLENBERG COLLEGE.—President, Theodore L. Seip; George T. Ettinger, J. A. Bauman.

- NEWARK ACADEMY.—Emory W. Given, Daniel V. Thompson, S. A. Farrand, Wilson Farrand.
- NEWARK HIGH SCHOOL.—Clara W. Greene; Principal, E. O. Hovey; C. F. Kayser Byron C. Mathews.
- PENNSYLVANIA STATE COLLEGE.—Edwin E. Sparks, George W. Atherton.
- PITTSBURGH HIGH SCHOOL.—C. B. Wood.
- PRINCETON COLLEGE.—Andrew F. West, Allan Marquand, Francis L. Patton.
- POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE, Brooklyn.—President, David H. Cochran.
- ROCKVILLE CENTRE SOUTH SIDE HIGH SCHOOL.—Elmer S. Redman.
- RUTGERS COLLEGE.—President, Austin Scott; Charles E. Hart.
- RUTGERS PREPARATORY SCHOOL.—Eliot R. Payson.
- SACHS' SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.—C. H. Leete.
- SCHOOL OF THE LACKAWANNA.—Walter H. Buell.
- STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, Millersville.—E. Oram Lyte.
- STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, Trenton.—James M. Green, Charles F. Carr.
- STATEN ISLAND ACADEMY.—Frederick E. Partington.
- ST. JOHN'S COLLEGE.—President Thomas Fell.
- ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL.—F. L. Gamage.
- ST. STEPHEN'S COLLEGE.—W. Geo. W. Anthony, R. B. Fairbairn.
- STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, Pennsylvania.—Nathan L. Schaeffer.
- SWARTHMORE COLLEGE.—President Charles DeGarmo; Edw. H. Magill, William C. Day.
- TEACHERS' COLLEGE.—President Walter L. Harvey; R. Arrowsmith, F. T. Baker.
- UNION COLLEGE.—Sidney G. Ashmore.
- UNIVERSITY OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.—Morris Loeb, E. G. Sihler, Francis H. Stoddard, Addison Ballard, D. W. Hering, Henry Mitchell McCracken.
- UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.—Melvil Dewey, James Russell Parsons, Jr., Charles F. Wheelock, Charles N. Cobb, M. F. Scudder.
- UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.—Edmund J. James, Roland P. Falkner, George F. Barker, Joseph French Johnson, John Quincy Adams, Josiah H. Penniman.
- URSINUS COLLEGE.—President, Henry T. Spangler; M. Peters.
- UTICA ACADEMY.—G. C. Sawyer.
- VASSAR COLLEGE.—President J. M. Taylor; Chas. W. Moulton, Herbert E. Mills, Manuel J. Duncan, A. M. Ely, Le Roy C. Cooley.
- WASHINGTON COLLEGE.—President C. W. Reid.
- WASHINGTON AND JEFFERSON COLLEGE.—President James D. Moffat; J. Adolph Schmitz.
- WESTERN UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.—Chancellor W. J. Holland.
- WESTMINSTER SCHOOL.—W. S. Buffurn.
- WOMAN'S COLLEGE, THE.—John F. Goucher, John B. Van Meter.
- YONKERS HIGH SCHOOL.—Herbert H. Gadsby.
- OUTSIDERS.—O. H. Boyeson, U. S. Consul, Sweden; E. W. Bristol, New York City; Jesse A. Ellsworth, New York City; J. R. Fairchild, New York; John H. Lee, Clinton, N. Y.; Mrs. Frederic H. Robinson, Newark, Del.; Charles E. West, Brooklyn, N. Y.; J. Perry Worden, Columbia.

The report of the Executive Committee was then presented by the chairman, Professor Butler, of Columbia College. (See end of this volume.)

The Association then proceeded to the consideration of the question: Should the degree of Bachelor of Arts be conferred on students who have studied neither Greek nor Latin?

Professor ANDREW F. WEST, of Princeton College, presented the following paper:

This question may be approached in several ways, but from whatever point of view it is approached, the answer finally depends upon whether or not the classics are regarded as an essential part of a liberal education. If they are, and if at the same time liberal culture is to be separately marked by its own degree, as is generally admitted, then it should be marked either by the Bachelor of Arts degree, which has hitherto marked it, or else a new degree will need to be invented.

As it is impossible in short space to discuss this old but fundamental question with any completeness, I shall content myself with offering some general considerations of equity and expediency in favor of the proposition that the degree of Bachelor of Arts ought to be confined to marking a liberal education in which the classics are an essential part.

I. In the first place, then, the historical liberal education which has embraced the classics is a distinct type. Its conscious aim, however imperfectly achieved, is the general culture of the mind for its own sake, independent of utilitarian considerations. In pursuance of this aim it has attempted to co-ordinate in a disciplinary curriculum those studies which the best experience of the world has shown to be adapted to produce an harmonious and catholic culture. Proceeding on the assumption that the educable human mind is capable of being trained toward an ideal end and that human nature remains an essential and constant factor in the problem, and that the true end of liberal culture is to produce intellectual wholeness or integrity, and thereby also promote moral integrity, which is so closely related to it, the modern age has been engaged since the Renaissance in experimentally determining just what studies best secure these results. Thus there has grown up by a process of evolution a type of culture in the Western world which we call classical education. It has persisted through centuries; it has shown itself capable of experimental improvement, and particularly since the rise of modern science has shown itself capable of affiliation with the whole ideal side of scientific thinking. In recent discussions, though repeated attacks have been made upon it, yet it has continued to be recognized in France, Germany and England, as well as in this country, as a living, distinct type which promises to persist in the future. This is quite independent of the question whether there is more than one kind of liberal education or whether even if there be several kinds, there is any other kind as good or better.

This view is strengthened when we examine the other forms of disciplinary culture which are often considered equivalent, or at any rate capable of substitution for the old classical education without injury to the cause of liberal culture. One of these is the type lately christened

in France "modern secondary education," that is, a discipline centering in and restricted to the specific culture of the modern world and accordingly constructed out of such elements as mathematics, the sciences, modern languages and literatures and modern history. It needs little argument to show that whatever be the merits of such a scheme of general culture, the difference between it and classical education is a difference in kind. The avowed and sole object of this so-called modern secondary type is to educate the student by acquainting him with the modern world, whereas the object of the other is to acquaint the student with the ideas underlying that whole Western civilization, of which the modern world is the present outcome, and thereby give him a general grasp on the fundamental problems of humanity.

Apparently intermediate between this modern practical secondary education and classical education lies the somewhat familiar type now named in France the "Latin humanities," or, as some preferred to style it, the "semi-classic" culture, which leaves out Greek and seeks a centre of organization in the modern languages supported by Latin and supplemented by the sciences and history. It is the type that existed in the Realgymnasium of Prussia until its recent abolition by the German Emperor for the reason, as stated in his address of December, 1890, that "the Realgymnasias are half-and-half institutions; through them a half-and-half culture is obtained, and it gives only a half-and-half preparation for life afterwards." All this might be conceded from an ideal point of view without also conceding that it is at present expedient to do away with this intermediate type, for to many students the dilemma is between getting a half-loaf of liberal education or none. Still the fundamental thing which differentiates this so-called intermediate type is that it is not really intermediate at all. It is not a distinct type. It is neither the practical modern secondary education nor the general classical education, but belongs to the neuter gender. It drops Greek in its desire to placate the practical spirit but does not thereby create a practical culture. M. Bréal well says: "To expunge Greek from a college would not suffice to make it strong in the modern languages." It retains Latin partly to reinforce modern languages and partly to maintain its standing as a modernized equivalent, or at least a substitute for the classical culture. So far as keeping Latin helps modern languages, it is well, but it inevitably brings up the dilemma whether on the one side if modern languages are taught better with Latin than without it, they would not be taught still better on the basis of both Latin and Greek, and on the other side, whether Latin in such a scheme is to be taught primarily for its practical uses in promoting knowledge of modern tongues, or as an integral part of liberal culture. It cannot be the latter without Greek. Now, so far as I know, it is the unbroken experience of teachers of the classics the world over that to teach Latin without Greek is to cripple Latin. Teach biology without chemistry, physics without mathematics, or archæology without history, and then may we expect Latin to be taught in its integrity without Greek. Accordingly in this Greekless Latin type the resultant education becomes indeterminate and must either gravitate toward a stricter

modern form, tend to reassume the classical form or ultimately disintegrate. Still it is with us and with us to stay for some time. All I aim at here is to show that while professedly intermediate in character, it is not intermediate. In its attempt to look like both the classical and practical culture, it looks like neither, and consequently should not be marked by a degree which will confuse it with either. As we leave this topic it may be well to commend to the advocates of this type, the admonitory words of Bréal: "Those who desire this form of secondary education should seek to realize it by creations carefully elaborated, and not by obliterations which, if they are convenient, are as unproductive as they are easily made."

These three are the only discernible forms which aspire to be considered types of liberal culture. Accordingly let them be marked by three degrees, thus keeping each separate for inspection, thus facilitating intelligent study of the results of these three types of culture and making possible a future judgment of their value which will not be obscured in advance by confusing what ought to be kept clearly separate.

II. The Bachelor of Arts degree is an academic label and apart from the truthfulness with which it represents the thing labeled loses its value. With but occasional exception, it has been hitherto understood as indicating the completion of a disciplinary general education in which Latin and Greek formed an essential part. It has become a sort of academic property, similar in character to a trade-mark or copyright, and in all equity, and I believe in law also, ought to be protected as carefully as the law in some States now protects the degree of Doctor of Medicine. If it is to mean any one of several things, it will soon cease to be recognized as meaning anything. I am not unmindful of the danger that may come from multiplying degrees and that the alphabet has its limits, but if any degree in this country has a claim above all others, it is the degree of Bachelor of Arts, the one distinguishing mark of our historical college culture. However, degrees need not be multiplied unduly. Three degrees will suffice for all the professed forms of liberal culture which have now any considerable following. Why, then, should the Bachelor of Arts degree be taken to label more than one type of culture, especially when the types are so few? It breeds endless confusion, injures the cause of classical culture, and gives to other types of culture a presumptive acceptance which they would, perhaps, be slower in obtaining without the label of the old degree. If they are good, let them vindicate themselves without sailing under false colors. But if worst comes to worst, and confusion as to the meaning of degrees becomes an accomplished fact, let a new degree be selected and used uniformly for that one type which has been accredited since the dawn of our modern age as the ideal liberal culture.

Principal C. H. THURBER, of Colgate Academy, Hamilton, N. Y., presented the following paper on the same topic:

Putting resolutely aside the temptation to enter the field of historical discussion, which in this case as in so many others, in my opinion, would

be more likely to yield us a warning than an example, and passing over for the present the question whether the modern tendency to make of degrees mere trade-marks will not by and by, when carried to its logical extreme, excite a reaction in which this whole inheritance of mediæval formalism shall be swept away, I must devote my few moments rigidly to the consideration of some of the effects which an affirmative answer to this question would have upon the preparatory schools. While the colleges and universities have been exercising a wise leadership and giving the preparatory schools many valuable instructions, this is one of the first opportunities that has presented itself in our association for the preparatory teacher to give some return for these long continued favors. The opportunity to advise the colleges is too good a one to be frittered away.

A large part of the work of the school is to fit men for college, *not for the university*. What the colleges do inevitably determines what the schools must do. We may make very sure of this, that if Latin and Greek be not required for the degree of Bachelor of Arts, they will be studied very little in the preparatory schools. The voluntary abandonment of a position which has been held for four centuries is a clear confession of its weakness. The cry has been that an enormous premium has been placed upon the study of Greek and Latin through a sort of higher educational trust or monopoly. Let us change this position and it will be just as evident to all outside the combination that Latin and Greek are under a ban. As to the immediate result there can be no question that the study of Latin and Greek will suffer incomputably. The manifestation of this result will be two-fold. First, Latin and Greek will be driven entirely out of a vast number of schools. Here let it be said that while historically Latin and Greek came into our curriculum for very different reasons, and while they have been defended on different grounds, their fates are now in all probability indissolubly linked together.

More and more it seems to be clear that the cause of Greek is the cause of culture, and that Latin itself is likely to go the moment Greek does. You would be surprised to know in how many Western high schools no opportunity to learn Latin is offered. This is the case, for example, in more than half of the high schools of Wisconsin.

In the second place, the abandonment of the requirement of Latin and Greek for the degree of Bachelor of Arts means the pushing down of the elective system into the secondary schools. Leaving to their fate those schools in which Latin and Greek shall be thrown out altogether, let us consider what will be the condition in those secondary schools who retain Latin and Greek as one group, or part of a group, of elective preparatory subjects. As matters stand to-day, there are two, and perhaps we may say three, well-defined courses in most secondary schools, the classical, the Latin scientific and the scientific. With all the vagaries of the colleges in constantly shifting and never harmonizing requirements for admission, by organizing his work along these three lines the secondary teacher has been able for the most part to keep some system in his work, and escape the insane asylum. But with such a radical change

in entrance requirements as would be contemplated by this step, I do not see but that chaos would result in the secondary school. The elective principle would come into operation in the thirteenth or fourteenth year, possibly earlier. It helps not a whit to say that the master would map out the courses for each student. That is always a more difficult thing to do in a lower than in a higher school. With optional groups of subjects for entrance requirements, the limit to such optional groups is not easy to see. Of course, one obvious limit would be what a school could teach. But the way will be opened to an endless differentiation in secondary schools, for the resources of no secondary school are equal to giving the range of elective work that the college offers—and yet this would be what the new plan would inevitably demand of it. One school, therefore, would offer special advantages in one group of electives, and another in another. We might have to take out patents on our specialties. The mightiest force on which the secondary master now relies for obtaining regularity and system in his work would thus be wrenched from his control. No longer able to invoke the immortal gods of Greece and Rome, in despair he would fill his new pantheon with altars to the unknown gods. Am I theorizing? Let me quote from a recent article by the principal of a leading Massachusetts school, a Harvard graduate, who fits boys mainly for Harvard. The italics are my own.

"The point urged is this, that in view of the extension of the elective system in the higher institutions, and the remarkable development that has been made and must continue in nature studies, the secondary school cannot be regarded a preparatory school unless it fits its pupils to enjoy the large privileges offered to them in the sciences by the elective system as it now holds in college and university.

"*Preparation for the elective system* then makes necessary a considerable development of scientific rather than language study in the secondary school.

"The elective system, while greatly enlarging the lines along which men may push study and investigation, points for any one student in the direction of specialization—specialization means centralization—the focusing and massing of the powers of the mind to the prosecution of mental work for which a man has special aptitude.

"The unwisdom of the adjustment between secondary schools and the higher institutions has been among the marked defects in our educational system. This ill adjustment has been apparent nowhere so much as in the constant expansion of the elective system in the colleges and the rigid holding to the old schemes of the secondary schools.

"The lack of coherence between the two kinds of institutions has been glaringly apparent. Latin and Greek have barred the way to a higher and wiser educational career to a degree harmful to different types of mind, and to an extent not required for the retention and cultivation of these languages in school or in college.

"That a pupil may be ready to make choice of the liberal provisions of an elective system, he should be given a wider range for sympathy, taste and aptitude in the preparatory years of his school life; this amounts to saving, in other words, because of the traditional curriculum

of the secondary schools, that more room must be made for natural science. To bring this about, there must be a pruning of the time devoted to language studies. *This adaptation of the course of studies in the secondary school to the elective system* has been seen to be attended by an advantage of very great value."

You will not fail to note that the informing idea of this writer is, that we must prepare for the elective system. And how? Almost in so many words he says by introducing the elective system into the preparatory school.

Not a few secondary teachers would probably welcome the abandonment of Greek and Latin by the colleges. It would give them room to introduce each his own particular hobby and thus to bring about precisely that academic differentiation of which I have already spoken. For many years the best thought and effort of many of our best educators engaged both in college and preparatory work have been directed toward bringing about some sort of uniformity in our educational relations, as sections first, and afterward as a nation. The step proposed would, it seems to me, at one stroke place us back where we began some twenty years ago, and take away the hopeful outlook.

I am not and never have been in sympathy with the exclusively classical education, but I have always had profound respect for it. I believe in the thorough development of the modern side in our schools, but I always believed that the best thing an education gives any man is the idea of system, order and regulation that comes through a well-compacted course of study. If we sacrifice that, there is no other place to stop, and if you sacrifice that in the secondary school, you need never expect to get it higher up.

Pertinent in this connection are the words of Professor Laurie, who in a recent article says:

"The idea of the education of the man and not of the technicalist first arose definitely with the Hellenic races, among whom there was no sacerdotalism. The education of the man, as opposed to the education of the technicalist, is what we mean by a 'liberal' education. In these days there is a disposition throughout the civilized world of Europe and America to return to what are essentially barbarous conceptions and to educate chiefly with a view to technical results. All arts and professions will suffer from this tendency if it gains the upper hand. We must aim at producing the most capable men, if in the struggle for national existence we are to hold our own."

The confusion between colleges and universities in our own country has led to the application of the reasons for the elective system in the university to the colleges also. In strictly collegiate courses it has been quite generally carried down to the junior year. It is not sure that all the merits of the elective system as a university institution are also merits in the same system as a collegiate institution. I am very clear that to push the principle further down into the preparatory schools would resolve them into their primeval chaos. The real issue is not between the humanistic and the scientific training, but between the humanistic and the technical training. Let us have, by all means, a

differentiation of secondary schools along these lines, but let us not suppose that preparatory schools must provide both kinds, and all conceivable kinds, of training. If we follow the lead of the Scandinavian countries and adopt a sort of union school for general purposes, I am much inclined to the opinion of Dr. Uhlig, who, in the school conference at Berlin, declared that if the Germans adopted that system, he had no doubt that their humanistic training would go the way of universal ruin. A uniformity of training may have a certain value, but specific capabilities for a particular career are of more value for the individual.

There be schools many, and should be. The preparatory school is not to be a maid-of-all-work.

The time may be drawing near when we shall have determined with something like scientific accuracy the culture value of different studies, but it is certain that at present we are only in the first stages of experiment in this line. We are not in a position, therefore, to agree upon any satisfactory substitutes for Greek and Latin as disciplinary and culture studies. Until the scientific study of pedagogical problems, which is now coming to the front all over the world, has fairly well settled for us the possibilities of other studies, their relative value and the best way of pursuing them, and until some tolerable unanimity of opinion is reached upon this subject, we may fairly go slow in revolutionary changes. It may be the time is coming soon when this question will have an affirmative answer. Perhaps some day we shall all vote that way. But I think there are several other steps to take first. Many who might even look with complacency upon the banishment of Latin and Greek will think twice, I am sure, before they will vote to fasten the elective system upon the high school and academy. Our secondary education is not yet in condition to bear that strain.

The following paper was presented on the same subject by **FREDERICK L. GAMMAGE**, of the Cathedral School of St. Paul's, Garden City, Long Island:

When I accepted Dr. Butler's invitation to read a paper before this convention on the subject: "Should the Degree of Bachelor of Arts be Conferred on Students who have never studied Latin or Greek?" I hoped to steal away from a multitude of cares for a few hours and prove beyond a shadow of a doubt that there is but one side to this exceedingly important and interesting question. The theft, however, yielded me no plunder, for at the end of my allotted time I find I have but one argument, and that is a woman's—why? because. I realized then for the first time how apparently easy of discussion was my subject, and yet how difficult of satisfactory proof.

Naturally the question presupposes definite ideas and positive convictions upon the value of classical study.

Before proving to you by argument that classical study is a *sine qua non* to the A. B. degree, permit me to state briefly what I consider to be the value of the study of Latin and Greek. In the first place, it excels all others in training and discipline, and furnishes the student to a remarkable degree the power of concentration of thought.

Professor Cooke said in a lecture some years ago: "A critical study of language is essential for every educated man, and such study is not likely to be gained except through the great ancient languages," and further, he adds: "I never had any taste for classical studies, but I know that I owe to the study a great part of the needed culture which has enabled me to do the work that has fallen to my share in life." I say this, too, being fully aware of the hostility which has of late arisen against the old-time college course. The claim has been made, and is being made to-day, that we want something more practical for our boys. Practical is the catch-word, and yet when the whole subject is analyzed, we find that the practical in the curriculum is very limited. Years of early training are devoted to arithmetic, and yet the fundamentals, fractions and interest are alone really practical. History, astronomy, botany, geology and chemistry are purely ornamental except to the scientist. They are not practical. Education is not a knowledge of practicals, it is development. I advocate classical training as a means of development and discipline. A one-sided mental discipline makes a one-sided, one-ideaed man. Classical culture tends to broaden and develop all the higher instincts in man. Cicero and Virgil, Homer and Plato mean little to the student of history, but to the student of language they mean rich, living, burning thought, nay a higher ideal of life. I would not be understood, however, as saying that this is the only means of culture, but I do affirm that it is absolutely essential to fill a place which would otherwise be left vacant in a young man's ideal education. I believe, too, that we are tardy in starting our boys in these essentials. Look at the English schools. There the boys who are working for degrees are far in advance of our boys at twelve years. I believe it is a wrong supposition that a boy must be master of the preparatory studies before he can begin the study of Latin. The study of the classics from nine to twelve, to the exclusion of everything else, would give far better training for advanced work than our expansive work on many subjects and in many directions. Dr. Chamberlain rightly says that concentration is the secret of power, while diffusiveness leads to weakness. In the English educational relief, the watershed is small, but the fountains are deep and perennial. In the American, the watershed is broad, the streams are many and rapid, but there are no deep life-giving fountains.

Secondly, the study of Latin and Greek is the best possible training for an appreciation of the English language and literature; etymologically and syntactically because the true office of a language is to serve as a medium of intercourse. The very fact that only an occasional student learns to speak the Latin and Greek proves that his whole mental force, enlarged and broadened, can be given to the study of the object of the thought in English.

Thirdly, this training is of vital importance to the professional man, particularly the teacher, since it furnishes the keys to a wealth of oratory, philosophy, satire, eloquence and statesmanship locked up in Latin paradigm and the Greek root. Again, it brings us face to face, yes into living touch with the life and thought of the most remarkable

peoples of the ancient world and teaches us, as in no other way it can be taught, the value of historical study.

Finally, if rightly pursued, this mental discipline cultivates a habit of accuracy and precision and develops correct mental processes, which are the essentials of advanced work in any department of study.

Gentlemen! If I have taken a good part of the time allotted me in stating my premises, yet it has been with this one idea in mind that my estimation of the value of the classics meets with your approval; and such being the case, my conclusion that they are necessary to the granting of the Bachelor of Arts degree can be correspondingly brief in its line of proof. For to confer the degree of Bachelor of Arts upon men who have had no acquaintance with the writings of the acknowledged masters of poetry, oratory, history and philosophy must take away from the degree its signification, a signification that from its inception has been acknowledged by every nation where the arts and sciences flourish. From its adoption it has included and required a thorough study of the classics. Without them the degree must have a meaning entirely new and foreign, and mock the present custom continued through the past seven centuries of learning. Again the culture and mental discipline obtained from the study of the classics cannot be equally well obtained from the study of modern languages, the sciences, or mathematics, because one studies the phenomena and results of a certain line of argument and the action of certain forces, but not the flexibility of a language or languages which have made possible the expressing of years of physical research or mathematical computations in a clear and concise style. Even if this were true, the fact remains that the degree of Bachelor of Arts stands for something besides mental discipline and culture; it represents an acquaintance with the literature of the two nations that have given to the world whatever is best in modern civilization.

The argument *per contra* that the classics are so superficially taught and studied that their literatures are practically unknown to many who receive the degree does not hold. Doubtless many of our secondary schools and colleges are defective in the method of teaching these noble languages, but this is no excuse for belittling the value of the degree given as a reward for their study. Correct the errors in methods, but do not make the degree pay the penalty of faulty work.

My argument leads me to the point where I can say that to make the degree stand for anything different from what it has always stood for will tend to lower the standard of scholarship and eventually blot out classical study, because a change in the meaning of the degree would create a prejudice against the classics which would lead to an undervaluation of their worth as factors in a liberal education, outside the school and college in its general effect. Now "letting down the bars" by the recognized sponsors of liberal education would constitute an argument *per se* which could not easily be refuted. And herein lies the great danger. If classical study means nothing; if it has accomplished nothing as a creative power, and is not a potent factor in mental development; then certainly, the doctor and the patient for the past few

centuries have been working from a diagnosis entirely wrong. But if it does mean what we claim it does, then we should be very guarded lest we aid in diverting the minds of our students from this broad, deep channel of true learning.

My third point is, that the classical course has and always has had a distinct mission, hence the degree ought to stand for the completion of the mission. If it means anything let it stand for the same as it always has or do away with it altogether. Long and careful consideration should be given before such a step is taken.

Now our discussion becomes more serious. We are not asking meaningless questions that are vague and doubtful. We know exactly what Bachelor of Arts means, we know approximately the work that has been accomplished by its possessor—Master of Arts may represent a course of study or it may not; Doctor of Philosophy may represent commencement day oratory or reciprocal favors; Doctor of Laws may stand for a large brain or a plethoric purse, but Bachelor of Arts represents a collegiate course in Latin and Greek and nothing else. If there is one thing in our profession which should be discountenanced more than any other, it is inaccuracy. The historian is a recorder of facts, not a *guesser*. The scientist experiments until he discovers truth and the mathematician secures accurate results, not approximations. In fact the true scholar is satisfied with nothing short of this. I do not believe in conservatism to the extent that we can never part with the old, but I do believe that the new should be so valuable that the parting with the old will not by any possibility leave a trace of sorrow. Radical changes ought to come when such changes are proven to be essential, but surely there is no demand at present for a change in the meaning of "Bachelor of Arts," which naturally tends to my fourth argument, namely: There are sufficient degrees now existing. Bachelor of Laws stands for a mission, so also Bachelor of Science. If a new degree is wanted for some new course of study or a variation in some established course, make a new degree. Some one says there will be as many degrees as there are courses in our colleges. Grant it! All the more reason then why the Bachelor of Arts degree should remain the representative of that very course for which it has always stood.

Lastly, the conferring of B. A. on students who have studied neither Latin nor Greek will tend to lessen the value of the degree, because there will be less effort of the mind required to obtain it. Consequently, it will be less sought for and finally disappear. Right here let me ask what, think you, will be the attitude of the old world toward our educational system? I am not an anglo-maniac, but I do hold a profound regard for the English idea of degrees. Their A. B. stands for a classical course, and no one can possess it who has not pursued this course. None dare ask for an A. B., D. D., or LL.D., although he may be entitled to any one. The degree is of too much value to be carelessly given. Gentlemen, what is the source of this discussion? Why has it seemed necessary to consider for a moment any change in the meaning of the degree A. B.? I believe the real cause arises from the fact that our minds are ill at ease with reference to the question of

degrees. We consider them too lightly and perhaps rightly, when they are distributed with lavish hand, oftentimes to the undeserving. I am not here to speak of degrees in general, but permit me to say that when any educational institution can, by legislative enactment, confer degrees, and in almost any course of study, and because of this men are to-day regarding lightly the whole subject, nay, laughing in their sleeves at the abbreviations which ought to add honor to one's name, there should be one degree whose meaning and signification is the result of labor, the only thing that can possibly leave no doubt, the only thing that carries conviction.

I am sorry my time is so limited that I cannot do more than place it before you in the rough. Pardon me if I conclude by calling to mind my belief and its backing.

The degree of A. B. should not be conferred upon students who have studied neither Latin nor Greek.

First. You rob it of its signification, a signification that has existed for seven centuries.

Second. It will tend to lower the standard of scholarship.

Third. The degree should represent the completion of a mission.

Fourth. There are plenty of degrees without it.

Fifth. It will lessen the value of the degree and make it less sought for until it finally disappears; and

Sixth. Our educational institutions will lose the respect of other nations.

The discussion of the subject was then opened by Professor MORRIS LOEB, of the University of the City of New York, who said:

From the standpoint of the teacher of science, it is to be hoped that Latin will be taught as a preparation to scientific work; because its study will best inculcate that accuracy of language which is essential; because it is the basis of the English scientific language; because a philosophical study of science would be incomplete without thorough command of the philosophical thought of the ancient world.

Requiring Latin for the A. B. degree is bad, so long as this would relegate scientific studies to a course entirely devoid of Latin. An elective system, leading up to a uniform degree, is to be preferred.

If Latin were no longer taught by scholastic methods, and courses were arranged with reference to those who do not make the classics their life-work, it would be feasible to require Latin of all students.

Professor O. B. SUPER, continuing the discussion, said:

I think the same degree might well be given to all college graduates, and this for several reasons. In the first place, educational matters are in such a chaotic condition in this country that it is impossible to tell what *any* degree means until you know the institution from which it comes. The B. A. degree at present represents nothing but that the recipient has completed the course of study prescribed by some literary institution, as distinguished from a purely technological or professional one. I could name institutions that confer the degree of Bachelor of Arts on persons who have not expended as much time and labor in procuring it as would have been necessary in order to enter the freshman class of our best colleges. In the college which I represent, we have more than once had bachelors of arts in the freshman class, having

received the degree at a school whose only proper work would consist in fitting students for college. True, they do generally require Latin and Greek; but after all, any institution conferring a college degree upon persons having so little training, is guilty of a fraud.

Again, I believe it to be far more important *how* a man studies than *what* he studies. Latin and Greek are very good and can be made to do excellent service in an educational curriculum, but they are not indispensable, not *alleinseligmachend*, as some would have us believe. If I had my way, no one should receive any degree from a literary institution without having *learned* a certain amount of Latin; not a great deal need be required. A thorough study of the accident might suffice. Any one having this basis might increase his stock of knowledge according to his own needs. Latin touches us at so many points that I think some knowledge of it indispensable to sound scholarship. Greek is far less important.

The time element I consider as being of the greatest importance in a course of study. I should say that the B. A. degree—all college degrees, in fact—ought to be given only on the completion of, say a six years' course of study, dating from the time of beginning algebra or some foreign language. What this language is, I do not regard as being nearly so important as the manner in which it is taught. To have a "native" come in two or three times a week and *talk at the pupils*, as is so often done in public schools, is, for purposes of mental discipline, usually worse than nothing. There are many good reasons why a living language is better to begin with than a dead one.

Again, suppose we say that no one who has not studied Latin and Greek shall receive the degree of B. A., then the question at once arises: "How much Latin and Greek?" And just here lies the greatest difficulty in the way of legislating on this subject. Merely to say that a candidate for this degree must have studied Latin and Greek will amount to nothing, for we all know in what a perfunctory manner such conditions are often fulfilled. This is another reason for believing that if we should say how long the candidate must have studied, it would be far more likely to be effective than to say what he must have studied.

I do not know any school where the degree of B. A. is conferred on those who have studied no Latin, but we all know that some of our best colleges do not now require any Greek, and this is the inevitable trend of things as soon as the principle of elective studies is recognized. Although we give the pupil some liberty of choice as to which he shall study, I think it perfectly logical to say that he shall pursue certain kinds of studies, but within these limits he must be allowed to exercise his own judgment. We may say that he must study mathematics and languages and natural science, but not that he must study calculus or Greek or German or geology. It is perfectly proper for an institution to put its standard as high as it pleases; to say that a student before receiving its diploma shall pursue a course of study which, for the average student, will require a certain number of years, but I consider it illogical for an institution that offers elective studies to say that a man must study Latin and Greek before he can receive the degree which is generally admitted to be the most valuable degree a college can confer.

I believe that studying Greek teaches Greek and nothing else, and the same may be said of many other studies usually found in a college course of study; but the notion that certain studies ought to be pursued for the sake of the mental discipline supposed to be derived therefrom, is one with which I have very little sympathy. If a man

aspires to be a Grecian, or even a philologist, by all means let him study Greek; but if he wishes to be a mathematician or a chemist, for example, I should say it was an injustice to make him devote a large part of his time to the study of Greek, in order to obtain the degree of B. A. If the choice had to be made between ancient and modern languages, I think the average man or woman, who knows no French at all, is more likely to feel the deficiency than one who knows no Greek.

Besides, it does not seem to me that we should contend theoretically for something concerning which, we admit, tacitly at least, that it does not amount to much. Given two graduates of the same college, one of whom has the degree of Bachelor of Arts and the other Bachelor of Philosophy, for instance, will anyone assert that the former is of necessity the better trained man intellectually? I think not. In the college from which I came, there are several courses leading to the degree of Bachelor of Arts, in all of which some Greek is required, and several leading to the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy, in which no Greek is required. Now, if it were proper, I could name some graduates in the former courses who don't know anything very well, and also some in the latter courses whom I regard as having well-trained minds and perfectly competent to teach many of the subjects they studied at college. True, the former had a smattering of Greek, but do they on that account deserve the degree generally considered the higher?

The discussion was continued by Principal J. M. GREEN, State Normal School, Trenton, N. J., who said:

The degree of Bachelor of Arts was originally given in the thirteenth century as a certificate of the completion of a course of study preparatory to entering upon one of the special higher university courses, such as medicine, law, theology or liberal arts. Later such a preparatory course of study was regarded as necessary for one who was to enter upon the industries of life.

The degree seems throughout its history to have retained its original function of marking the completion of the course of general preparation though the amount of work covered by it has ever been a varying quantity, differing with nations and institutions; the more luxuriant nations and the institutions which speculate in degrees requiring a lesser amount of work, and the more industrious nations and the institutions of strongest integrity requiring the greater amount of work.

History does not show that the course preparatory to the degree was necessarily limited to any particular subjects. While Greece had no university that appeared in the early conferring of degrees, yet, in scholarship, she was entitled to respect. To her training of the youth, no foreign language seems to have been thought necessary. The Latin needed to study Greek, England and France needed both Latin and Greek. The reasons for these respective languages in these different countries were apparent, containing, as they did, the literature, law and philosophy. Previous to the nineteenth century, it would seem that there was no especially strong reason why the major part of the attention should not be given to the languages and humanities. Hence, previous to this century, there was little need of discussion on what branches should be covered by the degree of Bachelor of Arts.

The nineteenth century, however, especially the latter part of it, has brought conditions that require a recasting of our certificates, titles and degrees. Educationally, as in the industries, we are confronted with the necessities of division of labor.

This is notably a scientific age. Science has become wedded to the industries. Mechanical and civil engineering, electricity, steam and the many appliances in mechanics are everywhere so largely supplanting the original raw labor that the common-school boy must give much of his time to the study of these subjects if he would even walk the streets in safety.

Science is not burdened with much really necessary history. It cannot be said that the scientific student must, of necessity, study either Latin or Greek. Yet it must be conceded that the sciences now make as strong a claim to recognition in what is termed preparation for practical life as did once the humanities. Indeed, there seem now to be two central themes of education where once there was but one; namely, the sciences and the humanities. Neither of these themes would entirely exclude all that belongs to the other, yet there would seem to be enough of difference for them to receive separate degrees. I am not of those who would have all pursue the same branches in what might be termed general education. The very multiplicity of views that are now presented as to what should constitute the central theme of education, is an argument to the point that men may differ in their preparation and still be qualified to meet the ties of life.

I believe that there is a sufficient reward coming from the study of the classics to entitle them to a place in our educational systems of to-day and I would have those who make the humanities the central theme receive the degree of Bachelor of Arts.

It must also be conceded that a student may take as his central theme the sciences, including the study of modern languages and a careful study of English, and be possessed of a qualification that is entitled to as much respect as that which received the degree of Bachelor of Arts.

Upon this latter course might be conferred the degree of Bachelor of Science.

The discussion was continued as follows:

R. B. FAIRBAIRN, Warden of St. Stephen's College, Annandale, N. Y.:

Two questions might be asked in reference to this subject: the first, when the degree of Bachelor of Arts was first conferred; and second, whether Greek was taught when the degree was first given. The gentleman from Garden City has told us that the degree of Bachelor of Arts was first given in the thirteenth century. That was before Greek was taught in Europe. This study did not then originally enter into the subjects which were required for that degree. It was a subject which came up later. A judgment with regard to the requirements was exercised at a later period than the thirteenth century, which may certainly be again exercised to-day. Whatever then may have been the significance of the degree, I do not see why we may not to-day, on the same ground, put some other subject in its place, and so far get back to what the degree was at its beginning.

The question, it appears to me, may to-day be studied in two ways. The one on its merits, and the other on the result. The question for our consideration is, what are the tendencies and results of such studies; what are the effects which the study of Latin and Greek produce? It may be an *a priori* consideration. We ask whether it so disciplines the mind and so develops its capacities that it gives to it the power to investigate the problems of the day; whether it qualifies us to meet the demands of life. Does the study of the ancient languages contribute to this in a superior degree?

It appears to me, that is the question which we should ask in the discussion of this subject.

Then the other way in which this subject may be treated is one of testimony. What has been the result of the study of Latin and Greek in comparison to other courses of study. The Warden of All Souls' College, Oxford, has published to the world the result of the examination of that college. All Souls consists of graduates; there are no undergraduates. Within the past few years there have been seven courses of study at Oxford. Certain persons, who wished to obtain fellowships in modern history, made that instead of classics the subject of study in the undergraduate course, in the expectation that they would be the better prepared for the fellowship examinations. But these special students did not do so well as those who first studied classics and then studied modern history. The inference was that from the study of the classics they came with better trained minds to the subject of modern history, and so were successful.

But there is another question in this connection, and that is the thorough study of the classics. I was told in England by a Cambridge man that members went out of the University less able to pass the examination than when they entered. And in explanation of this he said that the Latin and Greek authors which they had read at the great public schools were the same as they read at the University, but in a very different manner. They now devoted themselves not only to the language, but to the literature. Yet many men gave themselves to what we have heard so much of this morning, foot-ball and other sports, and fell back on what they had read at the public schools. The real question involved is the *thorough* study of the language and its literature.

When we speak of the necessity of Latin and Greek as a condition of a degree of Bachelor of Arts, we ought to remember that we have been crowding out the study of those two ancient languages by an enlargement of the curriculum. The classics occupy a much less time than they did. The great men of England, such as Gladstone, when they were at the University, gave their real power to the study of the classics. That study formed and fashioned their minds. The study of Homer is an evidence of the place where Gladstone and Derby stood in the University.

The question should also embrace the further point of the kind and degree of cultivation of the classics. In many cases the mere smattering of those languages and their literature which is brought from the college can produce very little effect, and can contribute very little to the development of the power and culture of the mind, of which the Bachelor of Arts ought to be the degree and witness.

Chancellor W. J. HOLLAND, Western University of Pennsylvania:

Professor Edward Hitchcock, of Amherst College, once said in my hearing: "My father never would have written his great work on the ichnology of Massachusetts, if he had not been able to translate the poems of Homer." Those of us who are familiar with modern science know that its whole vast nomenclature, as well as its vocabulary of action, is quarried bodily from the language of the Greeks. I have latterly been engaged in giving instruction in biology, and discover that those of my students who have enjoyed a classical training possess a great advantage over all others in the ability which they possess, almost intuitively to recognize the import of the sesquipedalian words which constitute so large a part of the literature of modern science. I

doubt whether any man can attain to real eminence in the natural sciences of to-day unless he proves considerable familiarity with Greek and Latin. The cases in which men who have been innocent of classical culture and yet have been eminent in the walks of modern science are exceptional. Those who have reached eminence under these conditions have done so, as observation teaches me, at the expense of an almost appalling struggle—with the dictionary. But the question is not so much in regard to the value of classical culture as to that of degrees conferred without it. Well, for my part, I am inclined to insist most strenuously upon the maintenance of the highest standards in this respect and the most strenuous advocate of the integrity of literary degrees I will not quarrel with, but what are the actual facts? There are colleges *and* colleges, and therefore degrees *and* degrees. My learned friend at my side, the Superintendent of Public Instruction in the State of Pennsylvania, has unearthed a college among us, which has given the degree of Bachelor of Arts upon the strength of one book of Cæsar and three of Virgil, "simply that and nothing more." When such things are done, is it any wonder that many great men among us have ceased to pay any regard to or to show any desire for these literary labels? I know one of the most learned and famous scientific authors of this country, who is entitled to write after his name every kind of a D. or A. or M. which is bestowed by any college or university, but who, because of the wretched abuses to which I have alluded, refuses to append any one of them to his name upon the title page of his books. Who can find fault with him?

Dr. MAGILL:

In the course of this discussion, one point has especially impressed my mind, and that is that while we now give three degrees in many of our colleges, A. B., B. S. and B. L., these three degrees (and especially the first) have a specific meaning, which is well understood by the public. Now those who claim the first of these degrees to cover the whole ground, to the exclusion of the last two, thereby admit the inferiority of these degrees, and at the same time admit the superior excellence and value of the first, or the classical degree. Although as the courses are now managed, doubtless the last two are inferior in value to the first, but they can and should be so arranged as to be of about equal value, and signify substantially the same amount of intellectual train. This is to done by more nearly equalizing the requirements for admission in the three courses, and then doing as many colleges are now doing, requiring four years' study for each of these degrees. Then, when they are thus equalized, why, you may say, not give for them all the same degree? The answer is plain: the studies in the ancient classical, the scientific and the modern classical courses are essentially different, and each should be made to stand on its own merit by conferring upon it its own well-understood degree.

Professor E. G. SIHLER, University City of New York, insisted upon the specific and generic difference between the process as well as aims of classical training and scientific, inasmuch as the former brought the student into contact with every type of intellectual endeavor, taste, and train of thought. The adjustment of classical research to a hard and fast inductive process was but a one-sided aspect of the entire matter, and an unnecessary falling in with the habits of study in a different field.

Dr. DE GARMO said:

"There are two questions to be considered: (1) What shall we label our graduates? (2) Have we left the mediæval ages behind? I acknowledge the great

service of the classics; they are the best instrument ever devised of making the student work and allowing the teacher to rest. Now, by this I do not mean to imply that the classical teacher is lazy, but that he can do only a little and arrive at good results, because of the amount of work done by the students. But, for instance, economics and politics are far more difficult to teach, and the sciences also, each one having its own method. The same is true of all modern subjects. All studies have two values, a content and a drill value. The content value of classics can be had in less time; that is, one can teach the philosophy by the study of Plato better than he ever can by the study of Greek."

Professor SMITH, of Washington and Jefferson College, said :

"Should a degree be conferred by those who don't have it? B. S. does not fit so well to cope with the problems of life as A. B. does. Should courses in science be raised to the same standard of work as those for degrees of A. B.? Would not authorities in such cases require more preparation for B. S.? Granting that A. B. fits one better for life, would brilliant men choose a course that would involve as much labor as A. B., but give poorer results?"

The discussion was continued by President Low, who said :

"I think it was Aristides who said, it is better to be than to seem. As the last speaker has said, the question is not only of interest, but of genuine importance. I value the classics as much as any man can; a classical education has justified itself in all years. That A. B. should not be given without Greek and Latin may be sound, but A. B. can be had from Harvard, Johns Hopkins and Williams without Greek. The question, as we have it here at Columbia is, that those who have conducted the School of Mines say young men do better who have taken a classical course. Another fact to be considered is, that young men who want a scientific education do not want a classical, and *vice versa*. The School of Mines was founded about the same time as the Sheffield Scientific and Massachusetts Institute of Technology, but with a different purpose, namely, it adopted a purely professional course, not a literary one. Young men entered the School of Mines two years later in life than they enter the classical course. The School of Mines is entered by students at the age of nineteen and a half years of age, and does practically the same work the first two years as is done in other institutions along those lines. If he could start two years earlier, he could have this preparation in economics, history, the classics, etc.

President SCHURMAN :

"So far as Greek is concerned, it is partly a question of fact. Already a man gets A. B. without Greek, and this year A. B. is given with one year of Greek at Yale, and in fact there are many institutions where the A. B. degree may be gotten with but one year of Greek. A more serious question is, Should Greek be taught at all? Shall we go on pretending to require it? Great is Greek, but greater is veracity. In regard to its disciplinary value, what is there which a student gains from the study of Greek which he does not get in other branches? It might further be asked, "Shall we require Latin? But to abolish Latin would be a radical step."

Miscellaneous business was then taken up. The following motion was submitted by President Fell, of St. John's College:

Resolved, That the prevailing sentiment of this Association is that the degree of Bachelor of Arts should only be conferred on those students who have studied either Greek or Latin, or both. Motion was laid on the table.

The president appointed the following committee to nominate officers for 1894:

Professor Edmund J. James, chairman, University of Pennsylvania; Dean E. H. Griffin, Johns Hopkins University; Professor Allan Marquand, Princeton College; Dr. Julius Sachs, Collegiate Institute, New York City; Principal John C. Rice, Cheltenham Academy, Philadelphia.

The president appointed the following committee to audit the treasurer's report:

Professor F. H. Stoddard, chairman, University of the City of New York; Dr. S. A. Farrand, Newark Academy; Chancellor W. J. Holland, Western University of Pennsylvania.

Convention adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The convention reassembled at 2.45 p. m. It took up the second question on the programme, namely:

WILL ANY KIND OR AMOUNT OF INSTRUCTION IN MODERN LANGUAGES MAKE THEM SATISFACTORY SUBSTITUTES FOR GREEK OR LATIN AS CONSTITUENTS OF A LIBERAL EDUCATION?

Professor H. H. BOYESEN, of Columbia College, presented the following paper on this topic:

The question, gentlemen, whether the study of any modern language or languages can be substituted for that of Latin and Greek, with as good educational results, is a more complex one than at first blush it may appear. If I were asked whether the mental discipline to be derived from the acquisition of French or German equaled or could be made to equal that derived from the acquisition of Latin and Greek, I should unhesitatingly answer: *No!* The latter present by far the greater difficulties, and the overcoming of those difficulties requires a correspondingly greater mental effort which is in itself educative. The puzzling out of a page in Thucydides or Tacitus calls for greater mental power than the similar deciphering of any modern author; and there can be no doubt that the discipline is a wholesome one.

If, on the other hand, the question is put to me whether any linguistic curriculum consisting of modern tongues could be devised which would yield greater educational results than are derived by the average student from the classical languages, as at present studied, I should answer as unhesitatingly: *Yes!* It is a lamentable fact which cannot be blinked that a very slight percentage of the students in our colleges, in any sense, *acquire* either Latin or Greek. A very few may get so far as to read extempore such Latin as that of Ovid or Livy, or such easy Greek as that of Herodotus or Polybius without too much difficulty or such frequent consultation of the dictionary as to spoil all enjoyment. But I ask you, gentlemen, how many college graduates are there (not professors of Latin or Greek) who can do this? So far as the vast

majority of a college class is concerned, the curriculum in the classics does not accomplish one-half of what it pretends to accomplish. And the results must be measured not by rare exceptions, but by the average of the class. I therefore cannot escape the conclusion that a curriculum which accomplishes so little for the vast majority is a more or less qualified failure. Ideally taught under ideal conditions, I do not deny that it has great educational potentialities; but as actually taught under actual conditions, it accomplishes less than we have a right to expect in return for the time and effort expended. I am perfectly well aware that to the average college man the halo of classicism which surrounds the Latin and Greek authors exalts them above profane criticism, and it is part of the rôle of our learned craftsmanship to pretend that we have derived an unnamable something from their study which somehow separates us from the vulgar herd and makes us gentlemen in a quite peculiar sense. As has been said, it is supposed to be essential to a gentleman, not to know, but to have forgotten Latin and Greek. We are to that extent under the spell of the past that we uncritically accept and perpetuate this superstition, and never choose to resubmit it to the test of experience.

Now, gentlemen, no one can be more profoundly impressed than I with the majestic simplicity of Homer, the flashing wit and urbane elegance of Horace, or the deep-veined humanity of Æschylus and Sophocles; but scarcely a glimpse of any of these things was afforded me while I was in the university. It was by later independent reading in maturer years that the real physiognomy of the ancient world was revealed to me. You will say, perhaps, that I give away my case by this admission. But I must beg to differ. It is as an educational agency, adapted for average youth, not for mature men, that we are now considering the classical authors; and I maintain that, because of what their study actually yields, and because of what it fails to yield, their unfitness is proved.

I remember with what a puzzled mind, as a boy of fifteen, I read of Horace's amours with Lydia, Chloe and half a dozen others, and how dexterously, how mendaciously, my teacher parried my questions. The odes, which (because of their too rank impropriety) we were told to skip, I spelt out boy-like with great and painstaking care, as for instance, the one commencing (Lib. I. XXV.) *Parcius junctas quatiant fenestras*, where the poet prophesies Lydia's fate when her charms shall have faded. It was words, words, words, and to me, very little else. So also a hundred other passages in Horace and Virgil's Eclogues which I could mention. And these things, which were incapable of explanation to an eager boy, were until recently, in Columbia College as in the University of Norway, *required* for entrance. If these passages were isolated and exceptional I should certainly build no argument upon them. But you all know that Horace, Virgil, Lucretius and Ovid teem with such passages. They were characteristic of that age of moral decadence to which these poets belong, and my conclusion is that these poets (however admirable and supremely valuable they may be to mature men) are unfit for immature youth.

How many of us are there who, in our school days or college days, learn Latin or Greek enough to appreciate Horace's or Homer's charms of style of which we hear so much? Not one in a hundred, perhaps not one in five hundred. We learn to copy or imitate Ciceronian phrases in Latin prose composition, but we do it uncritically and with no appreciation of their sonorous magnificence. And the baffled feeling with which a boy contemplates an unintelligible passage is exactly the reverse of educative. The parrying of legitimate questions on the teacher's part kills the most valuable quality of the youthful mind, viz., the beautiful and wholesome curiosity which the teacher should by all means encourage and satisfy. A half explanation or a false explanation (which I have been obliged to resort to more than once in the *Eclogues*) compels the boy to rest satisfied with a pretence and discourages him from further questioning. It is a wrong to him—an imposition. I am not now speaking of such authors as Theocritus, Bion and Moschus, which happily are not required for entrance to college, but of Horace, Virgil and in part Homer. The attitude of that age toward the question of sexual morality is so vastly different from ours, that it is absolutely incapable of explanation to the juvenile mind; for premature knowledge would be corrupting.

I know I am running counter to the prejudices of the great majority of you in making this declaration. I am aware that the declaration has been made before, but it is in need of constant repetition until it penetrates the consciousness of the educational community.

The so-called classical curriculum was founded upon the so-called *trivium et quadrivium* of the mediæval monastic schools—the *trivium*, viz., grammar (which was always Latin grammar), arithmetic and geometry being relegated to the more elementary schools, and the *quadrivium*, viz., music, astronomy, dialectics (being the Aristotelian dialectics) and rhetoric constituting the basis of the higher or university curriculum. Mathematics and astronomy were the only sciences admitted into this course; not because science was held to be less valuable than the humanistic studies, but because these two were the only sciences then known.

It was long supposed that the university curriculum embraced not only all things known, but all things knowable, the *omne scibile*, and it was no empty boast on the part of Dante and Melanchthon that they had mastered the *omne scibile* of their age. Long before the present century, however, that pretence had been abandoned, and the question which then presented itself was, how to make a judicious selection among the many new branches of useful knowledge, and admit to the university curriculum what was most indispensable to a modern man as an efficient equipment for modern life. But here the well-known conservatism of university faculties asserted itself. It was inconceivable to the average professor that that which he did not know could compare in value with that which he did know. Only slowly and reluctantly, inch by inch, has he yielded his ground, under the compulsion of public opinion. Physics was admitted in the face of bitter opposition, and now at last chemistry, geology and biology have effected

an entrance—at least as optionals. The modern languages were also reluctantly granted a place as *allotria*—things unessential and of minor consequence—on the outer edge of the college curriculum, and it was supposed to be little less than profanity to assert that they were to be compared as agencies of culture with Latin and Greek.

Now, kindly bear in mind what I have said as to the disciplinary value of the real acquisition of the ancient tongues; but my point is this: In less than half the time that it takes NOT to acquire—or to acquire imperfectly—Latin and Greek, you may acquire *perfectly*, both for reading and speaking purposes, French and German. And the command of two great modern tongues, developed to an exquisite perfection as mediums of thought and expression, is, in my opinion, vastly more valuable than that scrappy and patchy partial knowledge or partial ignorance of Latin and Greek with which our universities at present equip their graduates.

Only think of the enormous value to the student and to the professional man of having the whole modern world of thought accessible to him, so as to be able to appropriate the latest results in science and to enjoy the latest literary phenomena, without waiting for the intercession of bungling translators. If Latin or Greek were made optional from the beginning, as they ought to be, a great deal of most valuable time would be gained at a most important period, which might be utilized in opening the student's eyes to the significance of the world about him, by means of scientific study. For I maintain that it is the primary business of all education to fit a man for *modern* life (not for that of Greece or Rome) and this can only be done by supplying him with that wonderful and beautiful knowledge (contained in such sciences as biology, physics, geology and chemistry), which enables him to live his life more fully, richly and intelligently, and to apprehend the reality which surrounds him, and read the lesson which it is constantly conveying to the intellectually awake.

"This life means something to the capable," says Göthe; but it is deplorable to see how little it means to the great majority of classically educated men, who have wasted years of their life in acquiring ornamental but comparatively unpractical knowledge concerning such things as the *gentes* of Rome and the *ψυλαί* of Athens, while they would regard a knowledge of the wards of New York and Brooklyn as matters of no earthly consequence. I do not say that this curious information concerning the past is useless, but I do maintain that its value is in no sort of proportion to the time it costs to acquire it, and in no sort of proportion to the value of the knowledge which it crowds out of the college curriculum, and which would be substituted, if Latin or Greek were made not compulsory, but optional.

The question has been repeatedly put to us: But what would you substitute for this highly refining and venerable discipline? Well, as I have said, I would substitute a far more thorough and efficient course in science and modern languages. But what is there in modern languages, which in beauty and dignity can compare even remotely with Homer, Sophocles, Æschylus, and *longo intervallo*, with Horace

and Virgil? Well, I frankly admit that I know of no epic comparable to Homer, nor of any tragedy, except Shakespeare's, comparable to the Prometheus and the Antigone. I know, however, several modern authors whom I would place in line with Virgil and Horace, and indeed above them. But even conceding this, I contend that we pay too much for what we acquire, or pretend to acquire, for the reasons which I have already stated. I would undertake to devise a course in German, and perhaps in French, which, taking into account the far greater ease with which these tongues are acquired, would, in the hands of a competent instructor, be both disciplinary and, in a high degree, cultivating. There is, for instance, Schiller's "Wilhelm Tell," which is perfectly intelligible to a school-boy, and full of literary beauty. Likewise the trilogy of "Wallenstein," which is splendidly suggestive and presents interesting problems which can be made perfectly intelligible to youth. Göthe's "Hermann and Dorothea," resonant with Homeric echoes, and Lessing's "Nathan der Weise" are full of color and beauty, and the latter, moreover, teaches a noble lesson. At a more advanced stage we have a great wealth of material to choose from. I contend that you cannot name a single book, ancient or modern, in the whole world of literature, which is so crowded with vital thought, so stimulating and intellectually awakening as Göthe's "Faust." It is not food for babes. I would not read it with school-boys or freshmen, but in the junior and senior classes it yields splendid results. Lessing's "Laocoon," "Minna von Barnhelm" and the "Dramaturgie" are likewise full of vital suggestion and noble thought, which, however, it requires no very advanced development to comprehend. Göthe's "Iphigenia auf Tauris" is permeated with classical feeling and is admirably adapted for college use, and so is his "Tasso" and that exquisite antique intaglio, "Alexis and Dora." And from his lyrics I would undertake to make a selection for college use, which would ring in the brains of my students in after years, and give them a love and true appreciation of lyric song. Schiller's "Die Jungfrau von Orleans" and "Don Carlos" also afford deep glimpses into the ages (which Faust declared to be a book sealed with seven seals) and Freytag's "Bilder aus der Deutschen Vergangenheit" unroll a most admirably vivid and instructive panorama of Germany's past which is calculated to arouse modern thought in modern brains, and sharpen modern eyes in their contemplation of contemporary life and history. If I were to plunge from the modern into middle high German, I could easily find works which, in the hands of an able and wide-awake instructor, could be made admirable agencies of culture. I refer primarily to Wolfram von Eschenbach's "Parzival," which is a noble work, and the "Gudrun." "The Nibelungen Lied" is regarded as inferior literature, and certainly could not serve as a model of style, and I would much prefer to go to the Icelandic Elder Edda for the great body of Germanic tradition, which in dignity, power and pathos, is not unworthy of comparison with that of the Greeks. There is, moreover, in old Norse a great historic classic, almost unknown in this country, the "Heimskringla," of Snorri Sturlason, which, in point of literary style and vividness of narration, easily holds its own beside Herodotus and Livy. And the

whole great Norse Saga literature offers a tempting field for discussion, which, however, at present, I shall not invade.

Italy presents us with a magnificent classic for university study in Dante, while Tasso might perhaps find a place in the second or third rank.

With French literature I am not sufficiently acquainted to be able to speak with perfect *sachkenntniss*. I know Alfred de Musset, Lamartine, Victor Hugo and Gautier, but could not conscientiously recommend any of them. But I do not doubt that a man who possesses the same intimate familiarity with French literature that I have with the German could match there the course I have outlined in the Germanic tongues.

I am now prepared for the objection from some one that the authors I have named all drew their inspiration from the Greeks. "Die Griechen, die Griechen, und immer die Griechen," said Göthe when he was asked where he had learned his art. Schiller was intoxicated with the beauty of Greek mythology and glorified the gods of Greece in his splendid lyric. Lessing likewise read Æschylus and Sophocles for his amusement and was steeped in classical lore. Yes; that is all perfectly true. But if they made the beauty of Greek literature and art accessible (or in part accessible) to modern men in their own writings, they thereby absolve us, unless we be scholarly specialists and professors, from traveling the long and laborious road which they traveled.

We cannot all be miners, extracting the golden ore of knowledge from its hidden recesses in the mountains and rivers. Most of us are content to accept it in current modern coinage, glad if it yet preserves the image and superscription of whatever Cæsar it be to whose age it belongs. And the time we thereby gain enables us to live our own modern lives, equipping ourselves for its fierce struggle for survival with the most modern weapons of knowledge—not the sword and buckler and javelin of Greeks and Romans which in this age would be ineffective if not futile.

All useful knowledge, thoroughly acquired, is disciplinary and refining. And I know from personal experience that that knowledge of the phenomena of life which science supplies is nobly stimulating, thought-arousing and altogether the sharpest, brightest and most effective weapon for the battle of life which education can supply. Next to the sciences come the modern languages. But they must be taught not by dry and anæmic philologists, or nomadic gentlemen from abroad, in search of any kind of employment, but by men of vital force and insight into the great and deep heart of humanity, wherever or however it pulses. I will show you in Göthe what you may show me in Æschylus. Do not judge what the study of modern classics may achieve by what it has achieved. It is a blighting superstition which pronounces modern life less noble, less dignified, less instructive than that of Greece and Rome. Nay, the instruction it yields depends upon our own power of seeing and grasping its lesson. At all events, whether dignified and beautiful or not, it is *our* life, and as such it behooves us to study it. As the Merry Andrew says in the prologue to Faust:

Grasp the exhaustless life that all men live;
 Each shares therein, though few may comprehend;
 Where'er you touch, there's interest without end.

The subject was continued with the following paper by H. C. G. BRANDT,
 Hamilton College, Clinton, N. Y.:

From the wording of the question we may take for granted—

1. That with all our new theories and systems of education there is still such an ideal as a liberal education.

2. That languages are a potent factor in this education.

3. That the "arts course" in colleges and universities aims at such an education. It is true, the idea of a liberal education is looked at askance by many, and not unjustly so, because it is either too narrow or too vague. Three years ago Lord Dufferin told the St. Andrews students that Greek, Latin, French and English with a special reference to oratory were the essentials of a liberal education. A good example of the old hide-bound humanism which interprets liberal as meaning classical. In contrast with this stands the practice of large and small institutions which grow yearly a motley crop of Bachelors of Letters, of Philosophy, of Science, raised in courses that are no more liberal than their preliminary medical and law courses for which no degree has been invented yet. An inquiry into the admission and graduation requirements of these courses shows a pitiful state of affairs in the matter of languages. Latin and French and German interchange promiscuously. Generally one of the three suffices, rarely two are insisted upon. The old-fashioned Bachelor of Arts course requires too many languages, the new-fangled bachelor course does not require enough. The first has always insisted upon Latin and Greek, the second does without them. Upon the choice and the proper balancing of the languages depends the future of the liberal arts course.

Let us look for a moment at the history and order of the languages as elements of a liberal education. First of all was the Latin of the Middle Ages. In the old hexameter of *facultas artium liberalium. Lingua, tropus, ratio, numerus, tomes, angulus, astra lingua* meant Latin grammar. Latin was the spoken and literary language of Europe till about 1700. Aristotle was studied in Latin translations. With the revival of learning, Greek knocked at the door of this mystic circle. But it had to wait over 150 years before it was admitted. The present predominance of Latin and Greek in the German gymnasium dates only from the ministry of W. von Humboldt in the first decade of this century. After Greek the mother-tongue claimed recognition and supplanted Latin as the language of the learned. Though its claim has never been disputed it has fared worse than a foreign language. But like Yale College, we will take for granted, that every applicant knows his mother-tongue and we will leave English out of the question. The modern languages were the last to claim recognition as liberal studies. We may let French and German represent them. Acquired at first because they were ornamental and useful, they entered the college curricula fifty years ago in the usual manner, first as extras, then as

optionals with other new subjects, finally as prescribed and elective studies of equal rank and weight with the old staple subjects. That long and rich elective courses are offered in them parallel with the classical ones, that some conservative Bachelor of Arts courses require the elements of French or German in addition to nearly the old amount of Latin and Greek, shows that modern languages are considered essentials of a liberal education. It is apparent also, that they are treated seriously, methodically and successfully as liberal studies. The question rises naturally, cannot the modern languages that have won such rapid recognition by the side of Latin and Greek replace the one or the other in a liberal education? Arguments in favor of this substitution should take into account the following considerations:

1. The horizon of liberal studies has been much enlarged the last thirty years. We are less inclined to say that one particular subject must be absolutely included, that, having the vernacular, every educated man must know this or that subject. Knowledge is now much less a matter of collection than of selection, of prescription than of choice.

2. The secondary school is already overloaded with subjects. Even should the time now devoted to arithmetic, geography and English grammar be reduced, more than three foreign languages cannot be begun in them.

3. The great excellence of Latin and Greek as educative means is not disputed at all, but the languages are similar in structure. Their inflectional and syntactical frameworks are parallel. Both are ancient and dead languages. Why go through *two* educational processes so similar in kind and result? Is not one sufficient?

4. It would seem that Greek is less essential than Latin. It is more difficult on account of its dialects and its original literature, more refined and unique. In fact, it is "caviar to the general." This is admitted by its staunchest defenders. "It can be no longer maintained and is, in fact, I believe, no longer maintained by the mass of educational authorities, that the study of Greek is an essential element of a liberal education," says Professor B. I. Wheeler (*Educational Review*, 1892, p. 227). Greek has never been the *sine qua non* of an A. B. at the Johns Hopkins, the strongest representative of the group system, and has not been since 1886, at Harvard, the most advanced type of the elective system. The higher degrees of A. M. and Ph. D., also admission to the Phi Beta Kappa, are granted without Greek.

5. Latin comes nearer home to all the English, German and Romance-speaking nations, because, from their very beginnings, they have come in contact with the language, literature and civilization of Rome. Latin is comparatively simple. It has no dialects. No higher study of English and of a Romance dialect is possible without Latin.

6. Would it not be better to devote the time now given to Latin and Greek to one or the other? The complaint would be answered that very few derive more than the disciplinary benefit from their study and attain to a ready reading knowledge of them. Why begin the study of languages with two difficult ones, when Greek, if wanted, could be begun at a maturer age in college? See Professor Wheeler's article,

"Elementary Greek as a College Study," cited above. Is there any rhyme or reason in beginning French and German at eighteen or twenty, Latin and Greek at twelve or fourteen?

I take the ground, then, that four foreign languages are not essential to a liberal education. That the study of one classical language is sufficient; that French and German should be substituted for one of them, preferably for Greek. This question of substitution I must now discuss more minutely. The subject is not old, but it is a live one. Careful and dispassionate comparisons between ancient and modern languages as educative means have been made by President Carter, Professors Fay, Painter, Newton and Babbitt, men trained in the ancient classics, and experienced teachers. None of these has argued in favor of absolute substitution of the modern languages and literatures for the ancient ones. Languages differ much in the amount and kind of mental discipline their study affords, in the value and character of their literatures, in usefulness. No two are identical in these respects, and questions as to superiority and inferiority cannot be answered positively. Instead of claiming superiority or even equality for the modern languages and literatures, I would submit that the modern differ so much from the ancient, that when a scholar *has* studied, *is* studying, or *is to* study, one classical language, it is of the greatest benefit and importance to study French and German just because they *are* different. I will begin with the concession of the superiority of Latin and Greek with regard to the fine training of memory and judgment acquired from their accident and syntax. Enough of German and French inflection is gone to lessen their usefulness in this respect, but the French tenses, the German substantives and adjectives, the French and German pronouns and articles do pretty well in this respect. With its fuller development of the periphrastic conjugation started—we should not forget—in Latin, French has formed two new tenses by synthesis, viz., the future and the conditional. Look also at the following features in which French and German have gained over Latin and Greek. The evolution of the article and the syntax of the preposition in French and German, of the French tenses, moods and negatives, of the German double adjective declension and modal auxiliaries are difficult enough, if difficulty is an element of discipline. Latin has no article at all, and the attention given to the Greek article is not one-fifth of that which it receives in Ploetz and Mätzner and Blatz. Surely, then, there are new subjects and phases in French and German syntax, very different from Latin and Greek, to be sure, but not inferior as disciplines or as objects of study *per se*. Does not this new matter contribute much to make the modern languages satisfactory substitutes for one of the classical languages?

Again, the modern languages can be studied as an art for the sake of speaking and writing them. It is easy to sneer at this aim. Charlatans and rabid "natural Methodists," practical textbooks that promise mastery without toil and tears, have cast a slur upon it. But in all sobriety, is there not a great deal of truth in what Mr. C. F. Adams says about the usefulness of living languages? If any one doubts that the ear and the organs of speech can be trained in our classes much more

than they are, let him read von Jagemann's essay "On the Use of English in Teaching Foreign Languages." (*Trans. of Mod. Lang. Assoc.*, I., p. 216.) The trouble is with us teachers. We are either too easy-going or too much in a hurry or quite unprepared to develop this phase of our work. If the two dead languages are made alternatives, this great advantage of living languages must be developed to the utmost.

This leads us to the third reason why it would be well to substitute French and German for Latin or Greek, if it is done as early as the preparatory school. In younger years the organs are still pliant, later they become hardened in the grooves of the mother-tongue. Foreign sounds can be acquired at ten or twelve years of age by almost unconscious imitation; at nineteen or twenty only by laborious efforts and scientific phonetics.

A correct pronunciation is an important factor in the mastery of a living language, of little account in the study of a dead language, whose sounds can only be reconstructed with great uncertainty. Complete mastery alone can justify the substitution of the quick for the dead. As to the time when to begin French and German we should not overlook the clear advantage of an *early* reading knowledge for use in other studies. Usefulness is often thrown in our faces by humanists, but it is not an illegitimate view to take of a study, and it does not necessarily impair its liberal and nobler character. The same subject may be wooed as Schiller's "high and heavenly goddess," or be made "the milch cow that provides us with butter." I repeat, because, apart from discipline and literature, the ability to read, write and speak is useful and attainable by proper methods and at the right time. Therefore, French and German can well replace either Latin or Greek in a liberal education.

Let us look more closely at translating, which is admittedly one of the great objects of studying foreign languages, ancient or modern. "In reading such books as chiefly deserve to be read in any foreign language it is wise to translate consciously and in words as we read," says Lowell. Translation is valuable as a test of understanding the author, as a mental discipline in grasping an author's idea quickly, accurately and completely, as a retroactive practice, beneficial in our use of the mother-tongue. Says Lowell, again: "There is no such help to a fuller mastery of our vernacular as translating. As a spur to the mind, as an open-sesame to the treasures of our native vocabulary, the study of a living language may serve as well as that of any which we rather inaptly call dead." But the ideal, after all, is to translate till the untranslatable is reached. "Beim Uebersetzen muss man bis ans Unübersetzbliche herangehen," says Göthe. If we can feel that delicate line between the translatable and the untranslatable, translation is no longer required as a test of our comprehension. Then we have reached the capacity to grasp without exertion, to feel and enjoy without conscious analysis the style of foreign prose and the beauty of form and rhythm in foreign poetry. While not many reach that point of mastery in a living language, very few reach it in a dead one. If a ready

reading knowledge is the goal of the majority, we must improve our methods to accomplish it. We do not adapt our methods sufficiently to the needs of the scholar who may have already studied one classical language. We ought to read earlier, more rapidly and more in amount than we do. This point has been urged strongly by Professors von Jagemann and Babbitt. There is a wealth of reading matter specially adapted to this purpose. To the prepared reader should be added sight-reading, which can be done much more profitably and proficiently in modern languages than in the ancient.

The subject-matter is more interesting, the thought and the life lie nearer to the scholar's mind and heart. Sight-reading is easier, in one sense, in the modern language, but, again, it is more difficult, because more caution is necessary. Similitude of forms, words and ideas is a Lorelei rock to the unwary translator. Instead of leading to inaccuracy and superficiality, sight-reading is a wholesome reasoning from the known to the unknown, for which French and German give better opportunity than Latin and Greek. When we come to advanced work we cannot fail to recognize how modern language work has broadened and deepened in the lines of literary and philological study. Compare the latest editions of modern classics with those of only ten or fifteen years ago. The character of our publications, such as commentaries, grammars, dictionaries, shows the character of our work in literature and philology. We need fear no comparison. The literary side of this question I have left purposely undiscussed, because Professor Boyesen was to speak, who was sure to treat this subject much better than I, for he is both an author and an authority in modern literature.

As the tradition that the two classical languages are essential to a liberal education becomes weaker, and good instruction in the modern languages becomes more general, what is now an innovation will become a tried and accepted fact. Then the degree of A. B. will drive out the other cheap bachelor degrees, and become the open-sesame to all professional schools and universities proper. The harmoniously grouped triad, academy, college, university, will stand forth unmistakably from our present shapeless, unsatisfactory system of education.

Dr. JULIUS SACHS, of the Collegiate Institute, New York, presented the following paper on the same subject:

Gentlemen:—The question as presented by your committee implies that the *present* mode of instruction in the modern languages offers *no* satisfactory substitute for Latin or Greek, and in so doing it meets my hearty approval. I am, however, *fully* convinced that a great improvement in our modern-language teaching can be realized, so that French and German may become, educationally speaking, effective substitutes for Latin or Greek. In considering the nature of the desirable changes, I have endeavored to restrict myself to the phases of the problem from the point of view of secondary instruction. It is, I suppose, a matter of general acceptance that it is not proposed to displace completely the classical studies, but rather to determine how in certain well-defined

cases, where natural bias or lack of opportunity militates against the pursuit of both Latin and Greek, the student shall reap from the study of French and German benefits that may offset his unfamiliarity with one of these classical languages. That the problem before us is a most serious question of the hour appears from this, that, even with the prevailing modes of instruction, most of the women's colleges have concluded to accept French and German instead of Greek, and Williams College has recently adopted the same attitude.

A brief survey of certain prevailing features of secondary classical instruction will help to establish the points I wish to make.

For the classical languages it is claimed that to secure for the student its ultimate objects which are an extensive acquaintance with the sources of ancient history, and familiarity at the fountain-head with the manifestations of ancient life and thought, there is required an accurate and deliberate language-training which is in itself a powerful educative influence. But how often do our students attain this extensive knowledge? How often are grammatical finesses still an end to themselves? True, we should lay some stress on them, because from the peculiar genius of these languages we cannot successfully read them without having this fine tool available. The tool, however, should not master us; at the risk of seeming heretical, I cannot find a great triumph in the ability to make those delicate syntactical distinctions which play so great a part in much of our teaching. Is it, for instance, worth the while of the average student to fathom, if possible, that mental attitude of the writer that in one case impels him to employ the imperfect subjunctive, in another induces him to revolt from the standard, and substitute the present subjunctive? Not one in a thousand students grasps the fine distinctions, even as only one in a thousand has the nice perception that produces *choice* literary form, in place of the diction of the *average* well-informed man. We certainly do not aim to cultivate litterateurs in Latin and Greek, just as little as we teach rhetoric and English composition to create *writers*; writers develop because beyond the technique that may be acquired by all and taught to all, they possess the genius for form, and combine with it vigorous original conceptions. Latin and Greek grammar and composition, then, are only a means to an end; this view of their subsidiary function will, I am sure, find shortly a general and official acceptance in this country; and it may be well to record here another fact: in Germany, whose classically trained scholars lead the world, the trend of enlightened opinion is similar. The official representative of Germany's educational exhibit at Chicago, speaking on this subject, said: "Greek composition has been abandoned by us; Latin composition will follow at once; reading, reading, extensive reading, is the watchword of the hour." I have dwelt on this point because whenever the question of substituting French and German for Latin or Greek is urged, this has been the usual suggestion: You must impart the grammatical instruction in French and German in so scientific a spirit that the study will thus prove a fair equivalent; the formal and syntactical sides of both French and German, as they now exist, are obviously meagre as

compared with the wealth of the ancient tongues. Your teachers of modern languages must therefore be philologists, students of the historical development of these languages; they must teach the grammar historically, and thus infuse into their work that air of solidity, that scientific training that would otherwise be lost. This deliberate infusion of historical grammar is, I contend, an unfortunate error; incidentally, and as coming from the teacher's fullness of knowledge, it may be allowed to appear, but certainly not as a systematic feature of the instruction; valuable as it would be to the few of scholarly spirit, it would be a useless addition, a burden, to the majority. Let this idea of equivalents be discarded; each study has its valuable peculiarities, inherent in a variety of conditions that are inseparable from its genius; you cannot effect in French and German exactly what you have effected in Latin and Greek, and if, ignoring the spirit of the modern languages, you adhere to the lines of information suggested by the study of Latin and Greek, you forego something that cannot be replaced. It is as though a school, lacking the equipment to teach physics by experiment, offered chemistry as an equivalent: the latter is undoubtedly quite as valuable, is an excellent mental discipline, but it is not an equivalent for physics. This extreme anxiety about absolute equivalence has worked much havoc; let me drop it from consideration, and consider from the practical standpoint what is *attainable* in the modern languages. You may then judge whether, when taught so as to reach this goal, they form satisfactory substitutes. Almost from the outset, I believe, the student of French and German can be helped to catch the spirit of the native writers in those languages, earlier and better than can be accomplished in the corresponding field of Latin and Greek; for *THIS* reason, in particular, which somehow or other seems not to enter prominently into the discussion.

The ancient literatures lack one kind of literary material that should be offered to the young student, because it is in keeping with the stage of mental development attained by him, viz.: *simple* thought expressed in *simple* language. Our classical students exercise their efforts on the masterpieces of the classical tongues, works created to gratify mature minds; should it occasion surprise that they rarely get beyond the letter of the text, that the profounder spirit underlying these great works escapes them? How much superior, then, for the early stages is the fund of fairy-literature, simple anecdote, childlike narrative, available in the various modern languages; the foreign child of modern times thinks and feels pretty much as our own child does, so that one of the main difficulties in the study of a foreign language disappears at once, the unfamiliarity with the habit of thought of a strange people. *Reading and knowledge* of the subject matter read is to be the basis of study of the new language; it is to precede all systematic study of grammar. The teacher, by impelling to observation as the reading progresses, can establish quite a number of grammatical facts. But first of all, vocabulary must be acquired; I am a great believer in the value of vocabulary; a pupil with five hundred words at his command and without the knowledge of a single grammatical point

is vastly superior at that moment to one with the rules of grammar at his fingers' ends and but one hundred words. I contend that the control of the five hundred words will directly *impel* the student to use his words to the best advantage, *i. e.*, grammatically; secure in the possession of a more extensive material, he is now in far better condition to appropriate and apply the rules of grammar; in fact, the process of acquisition of so large a vocabulary under the various conditions of connected narrative (and it is, of course, only thus that vocabulary should be acquired, not from random, disconnected lists) is sure to stimulate attention to grammatical relations; we may be *unconscious* of this at first, but that is exactly what is wanted; if in shaping our sentences into a foreign idiom, we were to be *conscious* of every rule that applied, we would be still slower than we ordinarily are, in giving utterance to our thoughts. Not only at the outset, but *constantly*, let the discussion of grammatical points be suggested by actual phenomena revealed in the text; it is the teacher's province to determine what it is timely to connect with experiences previously gained, what it is necessary to defer to a later stage of advancement; the grammatical facts arrayed as a set of experiences in the minds of the pupils are infinitely more telling than are the cleverly formulated paragraphs and sections of the ordinary grammar. Objection should furthermore be *distinctly* raised in the early stages to all set translations from English into French or German, while free reproductions of the original text (orally or in writing) are to be advocated; however simple that text, the reproduction of the pupil is apt to be still simpler, and in its deviations will afford opportunity for correction and explanation. Most reprehensible are exercises of the kind that fill many of our modern-language grammars, an array of sentences deadening to the intellect and valueless to effect the special object for which they were designed. Take the French imperfect subjunctive; the grammarian has his quota of twenty sentences, in each of which a certain verb calls for the employment of this subjunctive; in his reading the pupil may not meet the form for weeks or months; when he meets it, he may neither recognize the form nor feel why it is used; the elaborate exercise has been lost on him. But if, upon the first occurrence of the form in narrative, the teacher points out its environment, and has two or three other actual cases ready for comparison, the pupil will promptly gain a *feeling* for the strange form. From what has been said, it is plain that I much prefer to our accepted grammars a good teacher with a properly graded set of selections, followed as soon as possible by connected readings; from such an arrangement I would, of course, taboo anything like a schedule of printed questions. Skillful arrangement of his questions on the subject matter will enable the teacher to bring up repeatedly the points that must be well defined, the vital points of the language. There is no better way, for instance, of bringing up unawares the peculiar forms of the irregular verbs; this *bête noir* of the pupils vanishes, when the study of paradigms *follows* the employment of irregular forms, rather than precedes any acquaintance with the concrete instances.

From the oral discussion of a previously read selection it would be well to branch out into talks on other *carefully graded* topics of general interest. *Promiscuous* conversational efforts are *not* likely to be fruitful; the teacher must have a *reason* for the introduction of every new topic, and keep well in hand every point previously gained. Here in particular his aim must be to develop in the pupil a sense of the linguistic *feeling* peculiar to the foreign language; the idioms find here their proper introduction. Here, too, the arrangement of previously acquired vocabulary by *topics*, as well as *etymologically*, will prove a healthful mental stimulus to the pupil.

I have thus far dwelt upon the earlier stages of the work, because all the difficulties centre here; the first year of work will tell the history of success or failure; therefore you will bear with me, if I dwell still further on elementary processes.

In speaking of the importance of readings in the foreign language, I have hitherto omitted to refer to another essential involved, good pronunciation; correct pronunciation in the modern languages is, for obvious reasons, of far greater importance than in the classical tongues. It is attainable by the judicious training imparted by a teacher who himself pronounces well and who knows how he produces the sounds, who, in other words, knows how he employs the vocal organs; he invokes in his pupils the faculty of *imitation*.

This brings us to a cardinal point, the question of *phonetics*, in which our transatlantic friends, both Germans and Englishmen, are now deeply immersed, to the detriment, I fear, of simple, straightforward instruction. The scientific student of language should possess, amongst his other accomplishments, that of being a good phonetician; analysis of sound-production is a valuable aid to the study of language-changes, but it should distinctly be excluded from the practice of the class-room. I do not find that Germans produce the English sounds a whit the better *now* that they and their pupils analyze them phonetically, than they did thirty years ago. Correct pronunciation is a matter mainly of imitation, which can become refined by experience, not by science. If the objection is raised that imitation is not an intellectual process and that in its stead conscious analysis of the reasons for sound-production be substituted, I would oppose this view particularly, firstly, because imitation is a distinct and valuable psychological process that should be assigned a far more important rôle than it now plays in the early stages of language-training, and secondly, because deliberate analysis of strange vocal combinations is very apt to defeat its prime object, the acquisition of correct utterance; the substitution of the unconscious for the conscious is a distinct gain, where no new linguistic or scientific fact is to be established. To introduce phonetics as a scientific feature into our modern-language teaching is a serious aberration, and the *use of transcriptions*, or the employment of new and arbitrary signs for phonetic purposes, seems to be both dangerous and useless. In the pronunciation, as well as in the literary composition of a foreign language, it is well to bear in mind what is attainable. A perfectly satisfactory pronunciation is most difficult of attainment; the current phrase,

"He pronounces like a native," is absurd. It is a rare gift indeed, almost as rare as that other gift, the attainment of high stylistic ability in a foreign language by one "not to the manner born."

German archæologists, living for a number of years in Italy, write their essays in Italian; it is probably perfectly correct Italian, but certainly not of that indigenous raciness which could be mistaken for the performances of a highly accomplished native. Among the polyglot Germans I recall but two, of whom the French admitted that they wrote absolutely idiomatic French, the one the great Orientalist Mohl, for forty years a resident of Paris and secretary of its most learned scientific body; the other Karl Hildebrand, a linguistic genius who wrote, as occasion offered, in German, French or Italian. I need not mention that this is a goal usually beyond our reach; what we may hope to secure for our pupils is an extensive acquaintance with the literary product of the foreign mind, the ability to fathom the social peculiarities of the foreign people through the medium of its literature. What is attainable may appear from some actual comparisons instituted in the class-room. In the average four years preparatory to college, our students will have read, after their initial study of the Latin and Greek grammars, a *maximum* of 400 pages of Latin (Cæsar, Cicero, Virgil, Ovid), and barely 200 pages of Greek (Xenophon, Homer, Herodotus). Now, in the modern languages, with a much less complicated grammar, the reading of connected prose narrative and poetry can be begun much earlier. Every teacher will confirm my statement that the same amount of intelligent study which is required for the thorough grasp of *one* page of Cæsar, Cicero, Homer or Virgil (at their respective stages) will enable a student to master ten pages of German or French text.

In fact, I noticed exactly this proportion in the work of several reputable schools; a day's lesson in Latin covered one page, where ten pages of German reading were assigned as a daily task. But if we required but *four* pages per day of either German or French, it will appear that in the same time in which 600 pages of Latin and Greek jointly have been mastered, at least 5000 pages of French and German can be covered. How much greater under these circumstances the insight into the spirit of these two literatures and of the people producing them must be, I need not set forth.

It is not unimportant to consider here the *order* in which the foreign languages should be taken up; it has become almost an axiom in this country that French must precede German, the prevailing argument in favor of this order being the comparative simplicity of the French grammar. I cannot take this view of the matter. If we are to proceed from the known to the unknown, and all good education now-a-days professes to move on these lines, the order should be reversed. German and English possess thousands of words akin, or very nearly alike; how easy, relatively speaking, is it to acquire a good working vocabulary of 500 cognate words, leavened by the introduction of forty or fifty new words or forms.

Discrepancies of form are but a slight impediment to a pupil when the fundamental resemblance is so great; whereas, in a language like

the French, varying from ours in vocabulary and word-formation, the very multiplicity of the new facts that are to be noticed is apt to lead to embarrassment and confusion. In *thought*, too, the relationship of German and English is closer; this holds, on the one hand, of the simpler records of child-life (children's literature); and similarly, the lines of advanced thought, as expressed in the higher forms of literature, show the influence of the original identity of stock. Even from the point of view of pronunciation it seems to me commendable to make German the first foreign language; the absolute regularity of German pronunciation affords few of the difficulties that are present when a language calls for a novel adaptation of our speech-organs, as the French undoubtedly does.

There is another item that enters very effectively into the consideration of profit and loss, when the substitution of modern languages for Latin or Greek is the issue. And here I speak of the German more particularly, because of a fuller knowledge of its literature. The picturesqueness of ancient life, of the institutions and beliefs of Greeks and Romans, need by no means be lost to the student of German. German poetry of the last hundred years is singularly full of the classical spirit; its great writers were powerfully attracted to the mythological and heroic lore, the religious and social institutions of the Greeks in particular, and therefore a study of numerous poems of Schiller, Göthe, Herder is admirably calculated to awaken an appreciation for the classical world. In this respect, though our English writers are as profoundly imbued with the classical spirit, German poetry seems almost to excel; the classical themes are more completely *popularized* by their poets.

Except in these cases, where we aim to secure for our modern-language students the charm of ancient life and thought, the readings should be chosen on other lines; a final word, therefore, as to the *selection* of proper reading material, which seems to me the pivotal point, if progressive work is to be accomplished.

Everything that is colorless is to be discarded, and on the whole, that which is *specifically national* is to be preferred; the student is to familiarize himself through the language with the spirit of the nation that employs it. Even though a student were to become a naturalist or an engineer, I should not, in his secondary course of instruction, deem it wise to put into his hands a scientific French or German textbook on zoology or bridge-building; the technical language thus acquired would count for little, as contrasted with the general knowledge of the language that he might have acquired in the same time.

Furthermore; short stories by modern authors, if otherwise unobjectionable are very valuable; authors of second rank are often more serviceable than the classics; many a student's interest in the modern languages has been dulled by too early and too heavy doses of Corneille, Racine, of the more difficult dramas of Schiller and Göthe, like *Wallenstein* and *Faust*.

Fully convinced of the possibility of attaining great results, I hope I have shown at the same time how serious a work remains to be done by our teachers of the modern languages.

The same subject was treated by Principal JAMES C. MACKENZIE, of the Lawrenceville School, New Jersey, who presented the following paper:

We must assume that the gentlemen who framed our question did not propose an exercise in prophecy, pure and simple, but rather a discussion partly reportorial, partly historical and partly prophetic. A quarter of a century back, such discussions as ours to-day were necessarily of the character of prophecy, mere theory and guess-work, in which those who rushed to the front with the finalities prompted in the judicious few not only grief, but also the funereal reflection of the Greek poet:

"Whom the gods would destroy, they first make mad."

Ὁν θεὸς θέλει ἀπολέσαι πρῶτ' ἀποφρενοί.

Dogmatism such as marked the earlier partisans of classical or modern studies was one of the proofs of the narrowness and bigotry of would-be friends of the classics or the modern languages, and served chiefly to accentuate Benamy Price's remark that one of the chief advantages of the study of the old lies in the fact that it saves from the damaging one-sidedness of knowing only the new. Moreover, in such a presence and after the lapse of a quarter of a century of intelligent effort on the part of our higher institutions to ascertain the relative educational values of the different subjects under consideration, it would be most unbecoming in a mere tyro to assume the airs of partisan or prophet.

The heat of the earlier debate having in a measure subsided, all lovers of culture are becoming more and more agreed that our business as teachers and learners must have regard for the whole man in view of his probable career in his native country, as good Roger Ascham says, "we have to train not a soul, nor yet a body, but a man; and we cannot divide him." We should be concerned not alone for culture and not alone for life, but for culture *and* life—not only what or which studies, but whither these studies tend.

Precluded, then, as we are in a large measure from taking a prospective view of our subject, let us look back upon the efforts and achievements of the generation of teachers and pupils who have been influenced by the discussions which began in real earnest in the seventies. Then no youth was expected to offer to the college a knowledge of either French or German. There were few higher institutions which, even if they were not giving instruction in Latin and Greek, deemed it necessary or expedient to provide courses in French and German. The idea of parallel courses in college in which the modern languages should occupy relatively the place for centuries held by the ancient languages, is of comparatively recent birth. Seven-tenths of the members of this body began one or more of the modern languages not earlier than the sophomore, more likely not till the junior year of the college course; and then the opportunity was faulty and almost fruitless. If the candidate for any reason did not care to pursue the fixed academic course and could see no advantage in a semi-professional course of study (such as was offered at the Troy Polytechnic Institute) there

were open to him no such courses as those now offered at the John C. Green School of Science at Princeton, the Sheffield Scientific School, the courses in many institutions variously designated as the Latin scientific and courses in general science. Presently, that is during the past thirty or forty years, such institutions arose as by magic all over our country, for admission to which in the majority of cases no Latin even or very little was required. Boys could get to college two years sooner, or after a preparatory course two years shorter. Greek was declared to be dead in every sense and Latin was doomed to a moribund state. The small academies, the ambitious high schools, the struggling normal schools, were coerced to teach less and less Latin. The famous endowed schools had a small army rudely demanding first courses without Greek and then courses without Latin, for could they not point to the entrance requirements of courses of study in venerable institutions like Harvard, Columbia and the University of Pennsylvania, that asked naught about Cæsar or his fatiguing campaigns? In such fitting schools, faculty and trustees were, under the stress of the cash-book quite as much as that of public opinion, forced to provide first the Latin scientific and then the English courses of study. These facts are more or less familiar to us all, but I am not so confident that certain other closely related, if not clearly consequent facts, are equally well known. It may jar on our ears to be told that a marked change in educational policy, a deep, far-reaching, reaction, unplanned, has already set in, that bids fair to divest the prophet in educational matters of the bulk of his old functions.

Some of the proofs of this change—not observed as I believe by many school and college men, and of course unfamiliar to the public—are these: At the Sheffield Scientific School, from a merely nominal requirement of Latin for entrance twenty-five years ago, there has been a steady increase in the demand for Latin from the candidate for admission; so that now the Yale catalogue reads as follows: "(1) Simple exercises in translating English into Latin, together with the elements of Latin grammar; (2) Cæsar, the first four books of the Gallic War; (3) Virgil, the first two books of the *Æneid*. The latter involves necessarily an ability to scan Latin hexameter." This last requirement of the *Æneid* has been added within eighteen months and preceded by a half year, the requirement of a modern language. Following the statement of the requirement in Latin in the catalogue (pp. 95) is a weighty paragraph urging upon teachers and pupils the old-fashioned thoroughness in the mastery of the forms and syntax of the language. All this coming from a school of science founded in that venerable seat of learning to relieve American youth of the necessity of learning the ancient languages in order to gain admission to an American college marks—I submit—a most significant change in the educational policy of the advocates of courses of study without the classics. A correspondence with Director George J. Brush makes known the reasons for these demands. It is that young men properly prepared in Latin prove and have proved more successful students in the modern languages and other courses of study. Hence it is, I suppose, that

Professor Wheeler of the same institution (the professor of German) finds it best after conditioning all admitted candidates imperfectly prepared in Latin, to organize classes of such men for drill in elementary Latin, to the end that the French and German work of the college course may be properly prosecuted.

2. There is another notable illustration of the same tendency in educational method and policy in the recent history of the College of New Jersey. In 1873, in response to the loud call for modernized courses of study without classical culture, provision was made by Mr. John C. Green, of New York, for the ample endowment of a School of Science. Up to 1884 there was a merely nominal requirement of Latin consonant with what was supposed to be the best educational thought of the concluding years of the most wonderful century of history. But impelled, not by the hasty opinions of the daily press or of the few original geniuses who force themselves to the front with or without the aid of the school, the Faculty of the School of Science have since 1885 set forth the following requirement in the College Catalogue: "Latin; GRAMMAR, with special attention to parsing, and the retranslation from English into Latin of simple sentences from the First Book of Cæsar; translation, Cæsar (five books of the Gallic War), Cicero (the four orations against Catiline) or equivalents from other Latin authors."

In making these wide departures from the first planned courses of study, we are assured that predictions were freely made of a serious falling off in attendance and a general inability on the part of schools and pupils to meet requirements in any "dead language." But it is gratifying to learn that in all cases the foremost instructors in the departments of science and modern languages in both the institutions named have earnestly favored the growing requirement in Latin, chiefly as the result of experience in teaching boys and young men science and modern languages without a foundation in at least one of the classical tongues. It is also gratifying to be assured that the Schools of Science that have profited by experience and included more and more Latin in the entrance examinations, have steadily grown in numbers. Indeed it remains for some one to explain why the Lawrence Science School, connected with Harvard, has visibly languished notwithstanding the fact that she has at no time exacted Latin of her entering classes.

3. But some one will say that I have appealed in my rôle of reporter or historian to purely classical seats, in which the strange, ineradicable "prejudice" exists in favor of a classical training. Let us, therefore, examine two witnesses of a totally different character.

The charter for the Massachusetts Institute of Technology states that it is the purpose of its projectors to establish "an institute of technology and a school of industrial science." There is clearly here no flavor of mediævalism or suggestion of those pious souls who projected Harvard, Yale, Princeton and Columbia where godly youth could be trained for the gospel ministry. Technology and industrial science are as far removed from Athens and Rome and Jerusalem as the most thrifty twentieth century man could wish. Such an institution will regard simply the gray matter stored above the medulla and the

amount and kind of gymnastic agitation possible under the influences of air and food. Such an institution will regard man (and does) simply as a machine for the achievement of the largest material ends. Her last catalogue has just come to hand, and as advised by a "paster" on the title page, I turn to page sixty-three to read the revised and improved requirements proposed by her scientific faculty as the result of an experience beginning with the date of the opening of the institute, 1865. I can scarcely credit the report of my eyes as I read: "The study of Latin is strongly recommended to persons who purpose to enter the institute, as it gives a better understanding of the various terms used in science, and greatly facilitates the acquisition of the modern languages. Those who intend to take the course in biology will find it advantageous to acquire also the elements of Greek." Coming whence this testimony does, coming as a confession of a necessity born of forty years of unhampered experience in the effort to train the human mind successfully without the classical tongues, I submit that, guarded as are these statements from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology strongly recommending young men who are to pursue courses in modern languages and industrial science, to lay a foundation therefor, not in Latin alone, but in Latin and Greek. I submit that the recommendation approves and enforces about all that the advocates of classical study claimed in the face of a growing opposition twenty-five years ago. Nor is this Institute of Technology alone in holding such a position. Precisely as the scientific departments of Princeton and Yale are symptomatic and representative of a drift-tendency in the type of institutions to which they belong, so is the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

But you do not care to have me pursue this line of inquiry among the 500 American colleges and schools of science. I must, therefore, rest my case with the examination of a few institutions believed to be broadly representative of all; and I pass now to the second of the last two types of institutions referred to above. We are to find confirmation of this tendency to a return to the fuller study of the classical tongues, not now at such ancient foundations as Yale, nor at such recent foundations as the Massachusetts Institute, but in a great western State university, remote from the hoary, sleepy East, not under the shadow of such forcefully literary institutions as Harvard—but absolutely free to incorporate and test the best modern educational thought. Michigan University, at Ann Arbor, opened her doors so that the people without other training than the high school (whatever the high school course in any part of the State happened to teach), could send their sons and daughters to the State University. Now I count it a marvelous thing that the genial and no less noble than genial president of Ann Arbor is able to testify in the matter before us, as he did in my hearing within a month,—*first*, that the high schools of the State are rapidly and apparently of free choice, as the result of a growing popular demand, increasing the amount of instruction in both Latin and Greek; *second*, that within the university itself, the bulk of all the migrations made by her 3000 mature students, in the light of their early choices of courses of study, are from

non-classical to classical courses. In other words, young men and women pursuing, or soon to pursue, studies and investigations in history, philosophy, science, politics, linguistics, have been brought to see the essential value of the languages and literatures of Greece and Rome as radical, integral parts of all kinds of modern knowledge. If Bohn's translations, or such devices as Mr. Emerson recommends would serve the purpose, it is unthinkable that these facts would have emerged in the experience of such a university life as that at Ann Arbor. And I presume the experience of Harvard at an earlier point in the career of her students, is well known. For nearly a decade candidates for admission have had the option of omitting the classics, and yet for each 400 so admitted, it is little less than astonishing that an average of less than twelve each year have taken advantage of the courses without the classics.

But the discussion of this paper would be very incomplete without a close look at the schools where the American youth are prepared for college or immediately for the duties of life. Experience at the colleges that have tested schemes and courses without the classics points to the instant revision of some of our judgments formed twenty-five years ago, and to a considerable change in the kind of preparation which even the State universities and the schools of science demand. But throwing the colleges out of account, what does the experience of the schools, the fitting schools, the public high schools suggest or teach?

Five years ago the senior master in the Andover Academy publicly declared that the intellectual imbeciles and cripples of his famous academy were shoved over to the scientific or English side. Twenty-three years ago, when I was a school-boy at one of our foremost academies, there was no scientific or English course—no course, that is, without Latin. Those who know the history of that famous school for the century closing in the seventies, know her brilliant achievements in developing mental power with Latin as the staff of the pupil's mental life. Meantime, in company with all our fitting schools, she, too, has established an English side without Latin. I could give no umbrage nor be chargeable with indelicacy were I to repeat the statements made by her teachers as to the unfavorable change in the intellectual tone and character of the institution. There are in this association an earnest, skillful, experienced body of teachers connected with our high schools and other schools of secondary grade; I have yet to meet one such teacher who, administering courses of study both with and without one or two of the classical languages, does not, however reluctantly, affirm that satisfactory scholarship is found only on the so-called classical side, and that, therefore, no satisfactory substitute for Greek and Latin has yet been found. And I think it pertinent, if I am not transgressing the limits of courtesy, that I should add to the foregoing considerations that it is the best judgment of the committee of ten recently appointed by the National Council of Education, who in framing one of a number of programs for fitting schools that is to omit both Greek and Latin, added, that, in their judgment, the non-Latin program is distinctly inferior.

I shall not here discuss the answer to some of the views presented, to the effect that modern languages have not proven satisfactory substitutes for Greek and Latin, chiefly because we have not yet in our schools a body of modern-language teachers equal in teaching skill and experience to the classical teachers. Some allowance, doubtless, must be made for this fact. Yet I must note, that for nearly fifteen years (the period during which there has been this growing demand from the scientific schools for more Latin), the department of Romance languages in Johns Hopkins University has been training and placing in our secondary schools some capital teachers; that some of our choicest young men have prepared themselves carefully in Europe for modern-language work; that such schools as Exeter have called from Harvard's faculty and elsewhere teachers of French and German, who had given ample proof of sufficient power as teachers, and brought to their work the zeal of recent converts.

I have too long delayed saying what I fear you may have despaired of hearing me say, that there are scarcely any conditions upon which I would consent to courses of study without the modern languages. But the question proposed for us has to do, not with the subordination of these languages to, but their substitution for, Latin and Greek. To the question as put by our program, the best educational experience of this country during the quarter century of its most intense and most nutritive activity gives, I maintain, an emphatic no. The question of Latin or no (and by parity of reasoning, of Greek or no Greek) in our secondary schools has been answered in the only satisfactory way. But the imperial tongues and literatures of continental Europe, of the Spanish and Italian peninsulas have knocked so loudly and so well at the academic door that no man who reads, travels or barter largely can longer question the imperative necessity for teaching and studying the modern languages. They have rendered possible their highest service in pointing out to American parents the wicked, inexcusable, irredeemable loss of time in our educational system between the ages of nine and fourteen. A closer watch by parents and the public over our elementary schools, public and private, would result in the much needed enrichment of our school programs, so that our alert, healthy youth at the age of twelve would be able to write a good letter in English, read Cæsar and Nepos with ease, read and speak at least one modern language, and be well advanced in algebra and some observational science. The addition of a second modern language, the serious study of one physical science should mark the achievement of the youth of average ability at fourteen. At this point in his or her school life a deliberate bifurcation should be made, resulting in the choice of a full classical or scientific course of study. The youth so prepared by laying intelligent tribute upon the law of the correlation of different studies, could in two or three years more, at the age of sixteen or seventeen, complete our preparatory courses in Greek and Latin, or meet the most exacting requirements for admission to the technological schools. Meanwhile, the memory would have been stored with the forms and grammatical principles of at least three languages in something of a

logical order and at an age when acquisition is easiest and memory most tenacious.

The discussion of this question under the five minute rule was opened by Dr. E. H. MAGILL, of Swarthmore College, who said :

"When asked to open the debate upon this question I consented only on condition that I should be allowed to choose which side I should favor after hearing the papers upon the subject. I did not feel that I had matured my own views upon the question sufficiently to make this decision in advance. Well, I have listened carefully to the four papers and I must say that if I confine myself to the question as stated, I must give my decision with the author of the last paper, in the negative. But if we are to modify the question as has been done by the authors of the first three papers, I should feel differently about it. I can but feel that the modern languages, in which I must most especially include and emphasize *English*, can be and *should* be so taught as to be a fair substitute for one of the classical languages in a liberal course of study. And that one I should most unhesitatingly say should be Greek. Highly as I esteem the study of Greek, and admitting all that has been said of it as a means of culture, I surely believe that as a means of aiding in the study of the modern languages, the Latin must be preferred."

The discussion was continued by Professor ROBERT ARROWSMITH, of Teacher's College, New York :

"My reasons for taking a stand on the negative side are : We assume that Latin is the basis of modern languages ; there are but few cases where German, French or Italian, without a preparation in Latin. We emphasize to-day the usefulness of studies, of which I was reminded in my life in the Northwest. I have in mind two cases, in a large city of the Northwest, where the parents not only settle the studies for the students, but also settle the method of instruction. It seems to me the human as well as the useful is wanted by the mind."

Principal C. H. LEVERMORE, of Adelphi Academy :

"There is little left for me to do but cast my vote, and in doing this I would wipe out the word *amount*. The answer is, What is the object of a liberal education ? We could get up a course which would be as good as the classics. The whole question seems to be, how we can most immediately get at the thought of those races whose languages we are to study. The question of getting at the best means of teaching these languages comes home to those who teach modern languages. Now, the classics have a scheme already worked out as to how to teach them. The minds of pupils are not subjects to receive imparted knowledge, but they are to be disciplined. We want to get at the most direct means of access to the records of civilization."

Rev. ARTHUR BROOKS, of New York :

"On the subject of English I cannot prescribe anything. It seems to me that the best part of all our life is religion. Here is a translation of the Bible which people cannot judge of. It seems to me important to be able to judge of the correctness of the revised version of the Bible as of Goethe or Schiller. If there is a difference, it is that we make the study of the classics utilitarian, the same as the teaching of modern languages."

Professor ROLAND P. FALKNER, University of Pennsylvania :

"There can be no doubt of the value of the classical languages. There is no one here who would deny it. But that is not the question. The program asks not whether the classics form a liberal education, but whether modern languages do so. I want to point out where this debate is mentally leading to. If what has been said since the debate began represents the feeling of this body, then you are practically deciding that no man, whatever his attainments, who has not studied the classic languages, has a liberal education. That I believe is a narrower definition of the term, a liberal education, than this body would be willing to accept."

W. C. INGALLS, Assistant Superintendent, Flushing, N. Y. :

"Mr. President : It seems to me that we are not at all agreed as to what constitutes a liberal education. Is it a mere knowledge of facts, of language, history, civilization, etc., or is it the development of a man's powers? Thus far the discussion has seemed to indicate the former, but my own idea is, that it is such an education as will teach a man to *think*, fit him to deal with the important questions of the day and make of him a wise and patriotic citizen.

"Although I am a graduate of a college where the ancient languages have always been prominent, and although I did far more work in Latin than was laid down in the course, still I believe that a man may gain a liberal education without the study of either Greek or Latin. I believe that the same time spent on the modern languages would result in better-trained and broader-minded men, and for this reason I fully agree with the first speaker on the question, that a course in modern languages may be laid out which will make them satisfactory substitutes for the classics."

Professor DAY, of Swarthmore College :

"The modern languages are very important in scientific study. The modern sciences have gotten to a point where the literature is extremely voluminous, and requires at least a knowledge of German. For example, in preparing a short paper, not long ago, out of thirty-five or forty monographs which I had to consult, all but four or five were in the German language. A knowledge of the language must be good, if not the very best in order to read those papers."

Professor WHEELER, of Cornell:

"This much-mooted question is never to be settled by *a priori* considerations. I have been hoping and am now believing that this question is to be settled by practical experience. I believe in consulting facts in the matter. I wish to add this, I do not think French or German can take the place of the classics simply because they don't. Without a knowledge of the classics the hands of men are tied, when they have anything to do with any one of the ancient literatures. One cannot be master in any line of the humanities without Latin."

Professor COHN, of Columbia College :

"I heartily endorse, from the standpoint of the teacher of modern languages, what has just been said by Professor Wheeler, of Cornell, from the standpoint of the classical teacher. But I wish to call attention to one more consideration which, together with many other arguments set forth by previous speakers, compels me to

take my stand on the negative side of the question as set forth in the papers. It is that with the classical languages alone we can have unity of training. When we speak of Latin and Greek we speak of languages which have done their work, and we all know what books we allude to. Not so with the modern languages. Here we are affected by our political, philosophical, religious, literary passions. This is the domain not of unity, but of variety; the choice of books greatly depends upon individual tastes. The basis of a liberal education, therefore, must be found in the classical languages as the sole ground upon which we are sure that we can make the students feel the brotherhood of learning all over the world."

Professor E. H. BABBITT, Columbia College :

"If I were to vote on the question as stated in the programme, I should vote in the negative. If asked to vote on the converse of the question, viz.: 'Can any amount or kind of instruction in the classics make them substitutes for modern languages?' etc., I should also vote in the negative. The languages and the culture they represent are all important in the history of civilization, and none should be neglected. As to the question of disciplinary value, the merit of the classical languages lies chiefly in the fact that there is an adequate amount of auxiliary material in the way of edited editions for school use and similar helps, and that the methods of instruction have been long studied and are well established. A course of disciplinary study in Old Norse could be devised, and a set of textbooks provided, through which as good results of the desired kind could be obtained as through Greek; and the culture derived from the study of an old civilization would be not greatly inferior in this case to that obtained from the study of Greek; only as a practical matter, because this civilization is not so directly in the line of progress, of European history as that of Greece and Rome, the classics are more desirable subjects for study.

"The methods of instruction in modern languages are still in the experimental stage. The question most prominent now is between the education of the ear and that of the eye. For my own part I am convinced that to the college student the latter is of vastly greater importance."

President REID, Washington College, Chestertown, Md. :

"In considering whether French and German can be made a satisfactory substitute for Greek or Latin, we must remember that, in ten years after graduating, the average student will for all practical purposes have forgotten his languages, both ancient and modern. This is a stubborn fact. What effect have they produced on the mind? Let us see what we can fairly expect.

"Suppose that an average student takes French for two years, and then, German for two. Suppose that another of the same ability takes Greek for four. At the end of that period, if they have spent exactly the same time in recitations and study, the first will be able to read ten or twelve pages of Racine or Moliere as a daily task, or six pages of Faust or Göthe's prose. The second can prepare for a lesson two pages of Demosthenes on the Crown. At the end of his second year, however, the Greek student will master three pages of the Anabasis for a lesson. We may fairly conclude then that the Anabasis, the easiest Greek, is twice as difficult as Faust, the hardest German, and four times as hard as Racine, the hardest French. But, remember, for the last two years, the Greek will read works gradually increasing in difficulty; Homer, Thucydides, Plato, Sophocles, Demosthenes. At the end of his fourth year,

he will do well if he can satisfactorily master two pages of the Crown for a recitation. Can you figure out from these data, just how many times more difficult Demosthenes is than Racine or Faust?

"The French language, if studied one hundred years, will not give the development that is shown in the ability to read a single page of Plato or Sophocles. There is a complete liberal education in one of the long sentences of Demosthenes, extending as it does over a half page.

"If a student has very moderate abilities, my advice is, take the modern languages, they will cram you with facts, two immense vocabularies, and two grammars, and will give your reasoning powers a sufficient development for practical life; but if he is bright and will make his mark, let him take Greek, or you do him an injury.

"What has the Greek student been getting, during these four years of solving puzzles, which will never leave him? He has been mainly developing his intellectual grip. The power to read hard Greek means a grip which will enable him to take hold of any question in law, medicine, theology or statesmanship and master it.

"A liberal education is nothing more nor less than the development of grip. The student who has gained this, can well afford to throw aside every fact he has acquired during his college course, with as little regret as he will drop his cap and gown on commencement-day."

President ANDREWS, of Colgate University:

"We have heard for many years that the Greek must go. There is a tendency for it to return. I should be very loth to speak of a particular line of study in which I am myself interested."

President ATHERTON:

"I should like to give the conclusions which I have come to in my own mind. I should not accept the form of the question or the form of answer that Professor Falkner would drive us to. We all recognize that modern and ancient languages are a good training; the question is, however, in a limited time what will do the most for us. I have the testimony of a prominent lawyer, that very much of his work depends upon a close discrimination in language. True discipline is an inward process, and gives the mind control over its own action. The cast of that ancient life and world is so different from our own that one must first "orient" himself in them before he can understand them. But modern languages refer to things so near his own life that when he sees the words he at once begins to guess their meaning. The Greek language is one of the most perfect products of human life, and a student unconsciously absorbs and takes some of the standards for his own life and thought."

Adjourned at 5.30 p. m.

FRIDAY, December 1, 1893.

The convention reassembled at eight o'clock p. m. to listen to the following president's address on

THE NEGLECT OF THE STUDENT IN RECENT EDUCATIONAL THEORY.

By President JAMES M. TAYLOR, of Vassar College.

"The life of a professor would be a delightful one if it were not for the students," is a saying ascribed to a once famous instructor in an Eastern college. The words cannot be said to express fairly the spirit of the relationship between teachers and students in our day. A marked change has come over our educational institutions, in this respect, within a few years. Due, in general, to the universally improved aspect in which education is regarded, alike by student and instructor, to the recognition of the increased maturity and manliness of the student, to the larger freedom of the elective system of study, the result has been an increased appreciation of the common work and common interests in which we are all engaged, and therefore of a common obligation and the duty of a common helpfulness. Perhaps it may be said to be generally true, to-day, that where this spirit does not exist, the failure is due to the student rather than the teacher, and is to be laid to the difficulty on the part of youth to appreciate the sympathy and interest of those of older years.

And yet the words quoted from the New England professor suggest, not inaptly, points of view which find abundant place in the ideals of teachers, which utter themselves in our discussions of schemes and methods, and which account for the stand taken by many as to the limitations of their responsibilities. One is obliged to suspect, at times, that the student comes to be regarded as a mere disturber of ideal schemes, and as a disquieting element in what, without him, might be a fairly pleasant life. Some respect must be paid, at least, to the limitations of his capacity and time, and all this involves the cutting down of our ideal courses. We are forced to recognize that his interest is not always quite equal to our own, and this fact diminishes the amount of work we can exact. His abilities do not seem to be equal to the mastery of a large number of subjects simultaneously, and this affects the symmetry of a curriculum. He has other pursuits and duties which involve a portion of his energies and time, and this limits rapid advance. In short, without the student we could form the ideal curriculum, work by ideal methods, and carry our own studies to a far worthier height than even we attain unto.

My present contention is that whether we admit the feeling, or not, we do proceed in much of our educational theory and practice with too large forgetfulness of the student, and that this fact is evidenced by a cursory examination, to which we now proceed: first, of the schemes and methods of education, and second, of the ideals of education.

Our problem is the education of the *American youth*. That is to say that we are dealing with no abstraction, but with an exceedingly concrete thing. It is not the human mind, but the human mind in certain definite conditions, with which we deal. Here is a distinct social environment, a peculiar educational development, a national temperament, influences of climate so marked as to lead many authorities to assert that the same amount of intellectual labor here involves a far larger expenditure of life-force than in other countries—here is the child of generations of intense life, almost devoid of even the spirit of rest, quick, eager, easily excited, shrewd, inventive, imaginative, wasteful of his energies, unlike as possible to the average boy who is the problem of the nations we have been most disposed to follow. The man who fails to develop his own individuality and who blindly follows models, soon proves himself of small account, and a nation is equally unwise where it fails to study and emphasize its own worthy national qualities. Every wise man, indeed, and every wise people, must be ever aiming to learn what it can from others' experiences, that it may apply what it gains to itself. The gymnasium of the German and lycée of France can teach us much as to method and attainment, and we must study them and apply their lessons, but it is sheer blindness which would transplant them to our shores, and which fails to see in them conditions foreign to our own life, and results—products largely of a military system—which every American educator should avoid.

In all that is said here, therefore, we have in mind not merely ideal relations, but these as limited by what we know of the American boy and girl.

In considering now our schemes of study, one must be impressed by the great multiplication of subjects offered in college and secondary school. Impelled by the increase of specialization, and by the influence of the university idea, the colleges have tended to crowd their courses with subjects of advanced study. Often the result has been beneficial to the college and has remanded to the high-school subjects better fitted to it, but in turn it has been obliged to struggle under the disadvantage of too great variety, or pass down its work to the grammar school. There must be limits to this process in all its stages, and one must view with apprehension certain tendencies that accompany the crowding of the course. Out of thirteen of our leading colleges whose catalogues have been examined, over one-half are offering large numbers of two-hour courses—in several of them this is the *rule* for electives—and one reduces the majority of its *prescribed* work to the same proportions. In several of these institutions a considerable number of one-hour courses is also offered.

It is certainly clear to every teacher that some short electives are useful and desirable, but when a student is enabled by the arrangement of the curriculum to carry seven and eight *subjects* at once, there is manifestly a danger that in our effort to make a curriculum broad and attractive, we shall give our students a smattering instead of discipline,

and reduce our colleges toward the condition of the fashionable seminaries of twenty-five years ago.

The danger which is involved in this forgetfulness of the real need of the student is fully appreciated by most thoughtful educators. Continuity is demanded where the best results are to be gained—the extension of the subject over a considerable period. A true psychology seems to point to that as a primary principle in education. But it is equally true that quantity is essential, an *amount* of the subject sufficient to give familiarity with its essential principles, and to gain from it the training it is fitted to give. The tendency to multiply short electives strikes at this second principle, and robs the first even of much of its vitality. But where is the remedy? The reaction has carried the University of Chicago to the opposite extreme—but where is the golden mean? In the group system? In a freer elective system where a larger number of hours shall secure the gains of the old prescribed course? In doubling the hours of the short electives, and giving to them but half the time of a term or semester? In saying boldly to the student, “You may not study everything; you must choose, and what you do must be done worthily and thoroughly?”

Whatever the remedy, the danger is a real one, arising from a neglect of the student's immaturity and need, and it results, too often, in the sacrifice of the best education for the sake of variety, and even in the interests, alas! of compromise between rival departments.

But this same tendency also results, and promises to be more effective still in the same direction, in offering to the student, if not forcing upon him, studies unfitted to the stage of his development. The study of psychology, for example, has been pressed back from the senior year as far as the sophomore, in some cases, in order that room may be made in the curriculum for a fuller philosophical course. Is not the thought rather of the ideal course than of the student who takes it? It is not forgotten that psychology, to-day, is altogether another study than the “mental philosophy” or “metaphysics” of twenty years ago, and that it is more comprehensible by the general student, but would any teacher give even modern psychology to an immature sophomore if it were not for the exigencies of an advanced course? We must always remember the *average* student and the average instructor, too, in our consideration of such a point. It is believed that most teachers of philosophy will affirm that it is the very exceptional student who is able, with great profit, to begin before the junior or senior year, this study which draws the mind into unaccustomed paths and exacts a degree of thoughtfulness for which most have no great aptitude. And the case is still worse, when, as in many institutions, the young student, scarcely knowing the meaning of the terms descriptive of the mind's activities, is plunged into the study of physiological psychology or psychophysics, which have yet to define their limits and prove the bearing of their results on the problems of mind. But in the name of a progressive curriculum they are introduced as elementary work, though fitted only for such as have made fair advance in the elements of psychology.

This is a glaring instance, but it does not stand alone. I have known college students to undertake political economy in the first year of a course, and with the natural result. The need of experience, of some comparatively mature thought upon social relations, and especially of a fair range of historical study, are all forgotten in the interest of the indulgence of a student's liberty, or for the sake of a university system. Again, the best interest of the student is sacrificed to theory, and a tendency to perfunctoriness is created—a danger always possible to young students, but surely not to be encouraged by the schema prepared for them.

The tendency to enrich the curriculum of our high schools gives further illustration of this point. The desirability of such a movement is patent when one considers the very small percentage of students who pass beyond the secondary school. Its high privilege is to open to these the vistas of knowledge, glimpses of its vastness and variety, suggestions for future thought and reading and intimations of the close relationships of its various departments. It is the duty of all who have in charge this work of secondary education to enrich it in every way consistent with the accomplishment of its chief aim. But assuredly we defeat the end of all education if subjects are treated in a way unsuited to an immature age, or if they are so multiplied as to confuse and overburden the pupil. There is an undoubted tendency to overcrowd the curriculum, and the demands of every principal branch of study are such as to ensure that, unless there be the utmost care in adjustment of subjects and the firm decision to exclude some. The experts in many subjects are asking of the boy and girl what should never be expected of those between fourteen and eighteen years of age. Better ignorance of many great avenues of truth than a merely vague acquaintance with all; better, too, far better, that our boys and girls have a genuine youth (it comes but once) than that they be crowded and forced by the multiplicity of their school pursuits, and the youth in them be destroyed.

I cannot forbear, in this connection, a reference to an allied subject which bears closely on the student's welfare, though it deserves full treatment rather than a passing glance. We cannot easily exaggerate the loss to the educator and the educated, alike, through our failure to concatenate carefully the courses of the school and college. To the student it involves a waste of energy, the loss of time, and not infrequently the sacrifice of a college education. The independence of the college and the school, in our eastern systems of education, has been insisted upon to an extent injurious to both, and it is one of the most important functions of an association like this to furnish opportunity for the union of those whose real interests are one, and who in friendly discussion can discover ways of removing unnecessary obstacles in the paths of youth ambitious to learn.

Allied to the mistake just indicated, and basing on the same foundations, is the over-specialization encouraged among young students. By specialization reference is made rather to the *aim* of work than to a method of work. The objection is not to a fairly proportioned concentration of the student's attention, especially in the later college

years, on a few subjects, but to the attitude of mind which regards these as instruments for the accomplishment of a professional purpose. Between the study of chemistry, or law, as part of a general education, and its pursuit for an industrial end, is a broad difference in mental attitude, and in its relationship to the total of one's attainment. It is the old contention between liberal learning and professional training, and it must not lead us aside from our main theme. Our issue is with the theory that specialization is a fit ideal for the student of college age, and our contention is that it is unfit, psychologically, economically, educationally, practically. Knowledge is so inter-related in all its various spheres that anyone is in danger of holding unfair views of provinces not closely related to his particular work. The specialist in science is very generally deficient in his appreciation of historical or philosophical evidence. The theologian finds it very difficult to give full weight to the conclusions of biology. And the same is true of the devotees of special lines in the sciences or philosophies. The history of discovery is a constant illustration of the difficulty with which the especially trained mind accepts the conclusions of even closely allied departments of knowledge. Probably no method of training would obviate this, but we should not *encourage* it by our deliberately formed methods of education. How much greater, too, is the danger to the immature, who lack the experience and the general knowledge which serve, in some degree, as balance-wheels to most older minds!

In the light of this patent fact, why is it that so many educators are urging that we cannot begin the specialization of study at too early an age? Is the question one of a better tool merely, or one of a broadly equipped life? Just here is the difference between most so-called self-made men (as if any man were aught but self-made who is really made at all!) and the men of more liberal training—not a difference of essential worth, but one of breadth of view, of the understanding of facts and things in their relationship. The danger, indeed, if this tendency grows, is that we may train prigs instead of broad men—ill-balanced devotees of a single line instead of enthusiastic specialists who know how to relate their gains to the sum of things.

The plea of time-saving underlies much of this effort, but that is a poor economy which saves time at the cost of narrower education and poverty of resource. It is an evil day for American education if the baneful haste which stamps itself on our faces, and utters itself in our speech, and is destroying too much of our best life, is also to rule in our college halls. We hear much of the too-advanced age of our students—and it is true—but the practical way to meet the difficulty is to keep the college strictly to collegiate limits, and to define it from the university; to connect it closely with the secondary school, and to so improve our methods in early education as to save one, and better, two full years. Any youth should be able to meet the requirements of our better colleges at seventeen, if not sixteen. Many do it now. No young man is mature enough to practice on our body, mind or estate, before he is twenty-four or twenty-five years of age, and if he must enter the professions addressing their energies to these, at an earlier age, let it be

by some shorter course than the college. It is the indefeasible right of any man to enter life without a college degree. My plea is that we shall keep the colleges to their ideal of a *liberal* education, and not sacrifice them to the devouring Moloch of American haste and practicality.

There has been, let it be freely conceded, an immense improvement in American college education within thirty years. According to the catalogues of Harvard and Yale for 1865-66, while the classical requirements were, in general, equal to those of to-day, the mathematical extended only to quadratics in algebra, and through two books of geometry. In English there was no requirement, excepting grammar, at Yale. Harvard required geography and a little history, and Yale no history and a little geography. Princeton, Columbia, Cornell, Williams and Brown required less in Greek, all asked for geography and grammar, geometry was not required, save at Brown, and history only at Cornell. No modern language was required, but the student could begin one in the so-called scientific course. The mere statement of these facts makes evident how solid has been the progress in methods and attainment, for even then the college boy of sixteen was the exception, and probably the average age was not less than seventeen.

All this advance was needed to satisfy the most moderate demands of a progressive age. It is surely no ground for our lessening the effort on behalf of the advance of *liberal*, in distinction from special training. What have we worked for these twenty-five years past, if not to lift up, to furnish a broader and better basis for life? Surely not to base a claim for the same amount of training as our colleges then gave. Yet that has been claimed in print, and is the logical outcome of much of the reasoning on this question. But poor enough, yet, is the total gain of the graduate of to-day in all that constitutes real, intellectual culture—and to give that is a large reason for the *being* of a college. In the interest of our students, then, our courses of study should aim at breadth, at the opening of vistas of intellectual interest, at the suggestion of lines of thought and study which shall ever abide as inspirations in the frequently dry and thirsty land of our common life.

Nor, let it be added, have the greatest specialists ever built on the narrow bases of so-called specialties. The two most fruitful minds in the world's history may be called, justly, specialists in philosophy, but who that reads the dialogues of Plato fails to see that his hold on every time is due to his breadth, and not his narrowness, and who that tries to follow the lead of that mightiest of human thinkers, Aristotle, is not impressed by the marvelous range of his interests and pursuits? Humboldt, Darwin, von Helmholtz, and Zeller, Lotze and Dörner, Mommsen and Curtius, point the moral of the need of broad foundations and liberal culture for fullest and highest results. *First*, an unhurried, careful development of faculty, an opening of eye and mind to many problems, and to the relations of knowledge, and then give the student rein, and let him throw all his energies into the line to which the inner call of his heart allures him.

These considerations have been urged on the ground of the comparative mental immaturity of the student. Bright, acquisitive, quick in questioning, delighted at every new discovery of thought and investigation, stimulating and helpful to every true teacher, the student is yet inexperienced and generally lacks the development which enables one to concatenate the details of his knowledge. How often one is surprised at the evidence that the clever student has failed to see the nearest relationships of the thought which apparently he has so clearly grasped! That should not be forgotten by us who have gained that one advantage of increased years—*experience*. But if it were better remembered, would there not be a more careful guarding against the spirit which would enrich the curriculum beyond the fitness of the student to profit by it—and less of haste where should be calmness, patience and leadership instead of crowding. At this point we seem to be in danger of neglecting the actual student, and in our eagerness to produce the best working theory, we may sacrifice him for whom we theorize and work.

This last suggestion may introduce us to illustration of the general theme drawn from our *methods* of teaching. We tread here on delicate ground, but deal with principles, and we are sure of our common interests and aims even where we differ as to the fittest method of realizing them.

If what has been said, heretofore, merits attention, the young student should be taught by methods suited to the facts of his condition, fitted to develop his powers, draw out his abilities, incite, lead to independence of thought, reason and investigation. There would appear to be a wide-spread tendency among American educators to adopt a method which neglects, as it seems to me, these very conditions and needs of the student. I refer to the lecture system, in the narrow and technical use of the words, which has made such strides in the favor of the teaching force of our colleges.

There is no call to discuss here the various causes which have led to the large use of this method, comparatively new in our system, nor need it be pointed out that our conditions often seem to shut us up to it. But we may properly ask, is it the method promising most to the student? That is the *vital* question. We do not teach for our own profit, and our own comfort and pleasure are not our ideals, but we all have in mind and heart, the welfare of the student.

I have known many able men who have pursued their studies at various German universities. The general testimony has been to the dreariness, to them, of the lecture method when it led to no further opportunities for question and answer. Again and again such men abandon the lectures in the interests of their study, and rely on the seminar alone, for the good they hope for from the instructor, and where that, in turn, as not seldom happens, itself becomes but a further opportunity for dogmatic teaching, at the expense of all discussion, it also becomes a weariness, and the student is driven to his books.

I do not forget that every true teacher is the master of his method and not its victim. Nor do I forget that there are lectures *and* lectures.

I have known several remarkable lecturers, but never one who was not of greater worth to his class where the formal lecture was abandoned, and the material introduced through discussion, by some method which compelled the students to activity, instead of permitting them to become, in Carlyle's phrase, "passive buckets to be pumped into."

I am not, let me repeat it, considering methods as such, but I am asking whether we are not in danger of neglecting the student's best interests in our response to recent tendencies, and *even fashions*, in education. We *laud* the Socratic method, but its practice (no easy matter, let us admit) is not just now growing in favor.

Is the student gaining by the change? If the criticisms thus suggested of our schemes and methods of education be true, a *general* question confronts us here. Ours is the age of the *scientific* spirit. Are we using scientific methods if we push beyond the facts of the intellectual development and capacity of our students, whether in the interest of a more symmetrical curriculum, or of one more attractive to the eye, and if we sacrifice more useful, though more difficult methods of work to the pleasure, the taste or ease of the instructor? First, last, always, the student must be the object of our study, his capacities, his development, and the means of accomplishing for him the results desired.

And, let us admit it, the student is not, as a rule, *consumed* by an eager desire for knowledge. That is not the sole inspiration of his being—happily for him! And the educational theory grounded on the hypothesis of such an interest will fail to meet the *facts*. It may be a fine ideal, but it is not *true*. It belongs naturally with the condemnation of all that is young in the student, youthful energy, youthful excesses, college traditions and customs which are unintellectual. Perhaps many of the fashions and fads of their elders may be quite as open to criticism. And we must take the youth as he is, with all his manifold yearnings, not a pure intellect, not an absolute spirit, not a disembodied affection, not even a perfectly conditioned body, not a balanced and efficient will, but a combination, in extremely varying proportions, of these essentials of a human nature. Our methods and our courses of study must respect this variety in its often strange unity. To be scientific, we must proceed not upon an ideal basis, and not by denunciation of a past which possibly ministered to its needs as well as we do to our own, but upon our knowledge of the youth of this decade. To begin elsewhere is to vitiate our theorizings by disregard of fact; to begin there is to solve the problem with which we deal, the education of the youth of to-day.

When one considers how large a part of life, and that the most susceptible, is given to these years of preparatory study, the importance of right and intrinsically valuable ideals becomes paramount. Every student does not follow the ideals suggested by his instructors, but it is not too much to say that he is influenced in all his life by them. For even if the ideal be such that it is lost sight of, yet such is the influence of habit in thought and action that whatever tells on these years impresses deeply all that follow them.

If the ideal set before the student be, for example, the successful passing of an examination, the satisfaction of the demands of a text-book and marking system, then the spirit of his work, the nature of his gains, and the ideals of his life will be shaped by this narrow and unworthy standard.

If, again, the ideal is set by those who make an idol of the football and the oar, it will not be strange if many begin to ask if it be worth while to support a son in comparative idleness for four years, that he may learn the slang of the college campus, meet the temptations incident to idle life, and graduate with a full knowledge of the technical terms of the games and a beggarly acquaintance with the sciences, history, language and philosophy. Do not think this a reflection on athletics. They have come to meet an important need in college life. They are a valuable addition to college training. Everyone must acknowledge their worth to character in the cultivation of sturdiness, steadiness, precision in action, courage. But no one of us can be blind, either, to their dangers, as affecting the ideals of a great number of students, in leading men who never see the training-table to idleness, and even vice, and in so absorbing their interests as to render many of them dull to art and literature and incapable of enjoying the pursuits of a cultivated society.

Unless this student-ideal is made less prominent some of our universities must meet this question of serious men, whether it is worth while to submit a young man to influences which are a poor substitute for college training, and which are likely to result in habits and ideals of life which will limit his usefulness in later years, and dwarf his conception of what he was to himself, his fellows and his God. The danger is a *real* one. Witness the conversation of young students regarding the value and interests of the college. Witness the relations of the growth of the colleges and athletic successes. Witness Springfield and New York. Who are the heroes of our college world?

Once more, if the ideal is the strengthening and disciplining of all our faculties, with a view to larger sight and insight, and the culture which is itself sweetness and light and helpfulness—the enrichment and freedom of the life—then in the aim is impulse, regeneration, inspiration unquenchable. It is not too much to say that no great reform in education has ever sprung from an ideal that did not embody these. This moved the great thoughts of the seventh book of the Republic, inspired the imperial academies of the early Christian centuries, influenced alike Melancthon and the Jesuits, inspired Ascham, and Milton, and Comenius, was embodied in the Emile, and lived in Pestalozzi.

Is not much of the opposition to college education due to the obscuring of its true ideals? Would it not be lessened if it were made clearer that the education is not an end but a means, that the college trains *men's faculties* and makes them responsive to every call upon them? *Life* does that for men. Self-discipline, solitary study, use of opportunities in social and commercial life, these all are means of education. If it were made plainer that the college is but the most

promising means among many, such opposition as springs from false claims might be done away. But if men are allowed to graduate with the notion that they have a monopoly of culture and knowledge, if college education separates them from the interests and industries of common life, then inevitably the objections to the college will be widespread and not unjust. Any education is a failure which does not train to *live*, which does not place the whole personality in more vital touch with the life and sympathies of men. If the humanities render men less *human* there is call to change our ideals and rectify our methods.

It is seen that the conception of education here in mind is utilitarian, but the utilitarianism is not of a low and too common type. No sympathy is expressed for the bread and butter theory of study, so far as that is meant to imply that the value of a pursuit is to be tested by the direct applicability of knowledge to the earning of monetary profit. Such education has its place, as has apprenticeship in relation to trade; but it is a base prostitution of the notion of *liberal* learning to gauge it by its value to this or that business and profession instead of by its gains to manhood in every call of life. There are higher as well as lower utilities, and every life must at last be tested by considerations of its use. *Cui bono?* is always a worthy question for a rational soul. Let it not be imagined that there is any thought here of the slightest criticism on what is sometimes called "scholarship for its own sake." It is simply contended that, in the last analysis, there cannot be such a scholarship. All true learning must serve its generation. We have smiled over the old story of "the dative case," but its hero was worthy of all respect and admiration, if to that single theme he would give himself with aim to build soundly and wisely for others, to remove difficulties, to reveal a link in the growth of that most important step in the development of rational man—language.

So the study of the earthworm, as an end in itself is absurd, but as revealing the secrets of growth as touching the very laws of life, and their universal relationships, it reaches sublimity, and like "the flower in the crannied wall," as seen by the poet-seer:

"If I could understand

"What you are, root and all, and all in all,

"I should know what God and Man is."

So also with language, science, philosophy, history, art, the *cui bono* thrusts back to the significance of human life, and we find them all its ministering angels. "The prime and direct aim of an education," says Matthew Arnold, "is to enable a man to know himself and the world." "To *live*," says Rousseau, in his epochal book, "to *live* is the profession I would teach him." And who does not recall the splendid imagery of Plato, as he pictures the prisoner released from the cave that he may go forth to scenes of the upper life, not that he may abide there in selfish enjoyment, but that he may return again to the cave to tell to its prisoners the story of a larger life and an exalting hope?

At this point, it seems to me, too much of our educational theorizing is lamentably mean. The gain in our ideals of intellectual

attainment, of thoroughness, breadth and accomplishment, have been enormous. The student of to-day has opportunities compared with which those offered twenty-five years ago were poor. Emphasis was needed at this point, and the need has been encouragingly met. But progress in human affairs is seldom attained without the sacrifice of one or more elements of complete life. Now this is emphasized, now that, and never do we advance at all points synchronously. So it is to be feared that in the needed attention to intellectual standards we have forgotten the moral, too far, and in the thought of the instrument have been too forgetful of its purpose, and in our interest in the truth have neglected the personal influence and inspiration which are such valuable incitements to its pursuit. No transference of character, no imitation, is in mind, such as is always feared by those who minimize this obligation on the teacher's part—but the power of awakening men to their best, of giving them imperishable ideals, and arousing them to a full sense of their responsibility to realize them—and this comes through no mere teaching, but only as the life of the teacher touches the life of the student.

This aspect of education used to be more emphasized than now, though the lessening of our sense of a moral debt to the student was not essential to the advance of our intellectual ideals. But the talk, so often heard, of the teacher's sole responsibility for the class room, and the limit of his duty there to the communication of knowledge, is a distinct denial of this larger debt of every maturer, stronger personality to the younger and the weaker.

It surely is a radical mistake to hold up an intellectual life as a *sole ideal*, and it results, often enough, in dwarfed and misshapen life. It is an *anticipatio mentis*, standing in the way of scientific progress and invention, as Lord Bacon would have it, an *idolon theatri*, opposing tradition to fact. It is an encouragement of the spirit of aristocratic exclusiveness in the sphere in which that is most of all detestable. It is the discouragement of the average student, slow, honest, faithful, and in the end *successful*, if education be taken in its large, broad meaning. There is room enough for all the expansion of intellect possible to men in the ideal here suggested, but it is contended that the student who finds in a liberal training intellectual incentive *only*, is neglected, and may even be turned aside by it from the best and worthiest life attainable by him, unless the intellectual is made but one element, important and potent, in a broader conception of education. Again it is insisted that that is not a scientific spirit which neglects the many sided nature of man for any single element. Assuredly, if reverence for law, respect for oneself and one's powers and a right regard for those about us, if the duties of citizenship and the claims of religion have place in life at all, then emphatically they belong to the sphere of liberal education, and impose their appropriate responsibility on every instructor of the young. It need not be said that there is no conflict between this and the most thorough intellectual aim; it is but for a right distribution of emphasis that the plea is made. All true moral life reacts upon the intellectual to exalt its ideals. *Duty*, after all, is the strongest word in life. Character

comes not from following lines of least resistance, but those of greatest resistance, "Ein Charakter in dem Strom der Welt," says Göthe, and that is as essential to intellectual as to moral growth. Strength comes through effort, and duty expresses the soul's effort toward its ideals. It is said that in all his despatches in the most triumphant days of his life, the Iron Duke never uses the word glory, but frequently speaks of duty. Was it that fact which suggested the ringing words of the laureate's splendid ode?

He that walks it, only thirsting
For the right, and learns to deaden
Love of self, before his journey closes,
He shall find the stubborn thistle bursting
Into glossy purples, which outred
All voluptuous garden roses.
Not once or twice in our fair island-story,
The path of duty was the way to glory.

There is no highest teaching without this spirit. The lack of moral earnestness is a fatal lack, and the theories which lose sight of this fact do so at the expense of the student, for whom, primarily, our institutions of learning exist.

Is it not just this aspect of our calling, fellow-teachers, which gives it its peculiar dignity and worth, the service of life and thought and learning in awakening the best efforts of youth to think clearly, to act nobly, to aspire constantly? It used to be said of one of the greatest teachers of England, that it was a shame to see a man fitted for statesmanship employed in teaching boys. It would have been a shame, indeed, had Latin verse and the stories of Roman heroes been the end of it all, a shame to waste the energy of such a soul in the grinding work of a pedagogue. But the possibilities of the future were his inspiration, and in his boys he saw the merchants, the lawyers, the churchmen and the scholars, who were to mould the thought and life of a generation to come. His ideals made his life as great as the statesman's could have been, and all England, in its schools, in church, university, law courts, reflects the true glory of that life whose shrine is Rugby Chapel.

That is the inspiration which makes our calling great, not the knowledge we communicate, but the *thirst* for knowledge, the eagerness for *truth* and the power to think clearly and live frankly in the pursuit of it. Let it be asked once more: Are we not in danger of forgetting this, in no small degree, in our present increased and needed emphasis on other parts of our work? Read again what Mr. Davidson tells us so well in his volume on Aristotle, regarding the effect of the old education in Athens, and the results of the new. Justly he calls it "puritanical," recalling in the word the influences which, more than any others, have moulded our own commonwealth, and given dignity and force to our citizenship. "The men who fought at Marathon, Salamis and Plateau," he says, "were puritans, trained in a hard school, to fear the gods, to respect the laws, their neighbors and themselves, to reverence the wisdom of experience, to despise comfort and vice, and to do honest

work." "They were educated to be men, friends and citizens, not to be mere thinkers, critics, soldiers or money-makers. It was against a small band of such men that the hosts of Persia fought in vain."

Or follow the influence of the Jesuit education, whatever one may think of its limitations, and note again the power of the teacher on life, and his hold on the future of the student. And we all are witnesses to the fact that in every life its awakening has been due to some potent personality which taught us to think, awakened our independence and courage, opened for us the vistas of knowledge and filled us with a purpose unconquerable.

Now it is Socrates, living in his great pupils, Metcalf of St. Johns, remembered because Ascham acknowledged him as the source of his inspiration; Arnold reincarnated in Stanley, Hughes, Vaughan, Mark Hopkins, whose spirit has gone out into all our land; Francis Wayland, whose great services to educational theory pale before the reflection of his spirit in the men whom he awakened and sent forth, and many another, living yet, whose life is multiplied and continued in the pupils who have felt its inspiration.

I have not attempted to bring to you a contribution to the new questions which are of interest to all educators. Some of these you have discussed to-day, and others will arise to-morrow. I might have asked your attention to that important present issue, the relation of the school and college, and that of the college and university; or, to the scope of the school curriculum, the extent and limits of the elective method, or to uniformity in our educational system. I have chosen the humbler task of recalling what seem to me neglected elements, whatever our system and its inter-relationships. There are abiding truths in the old, which, in our pursuit of the new, we are tending to slight and ignore. My theme then has been suggested by a tendency to false emphasis, but tendencies may crystallize, and emphasis will soon phrase itself in theory. The plea then is for symmetry; not the perfecting of a course of study, not the building of an institution, but for the remembrance of all that contributes to educate and cultivate and empower the youth of our own time and country.

At the conclusion of the president's address, the delegates attended a reception given them by President and Mrs. Low, at their residence.

SATURDAY, December 2.

The association was called to order at 9.30 a. m., President Taylor in the chair.

Dr. Butler reported that the Executive Committee recommended that the next convention be held at Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore. This recommendation was adopted.

The next matter of business was the reading of the treasurer's report, which was done by the secretary, owing to the absence of Professor Keifer. Report was accepted. (See end of this volume.)

The Committee on Nominations reported. Their report was accepted. And the officers for the ensuing year were elected by acclamation. (See end of this volume.)

The topic of the morning was then taken up, which was :

WORK IN ENGLISH IN THE COLLEGES AND PREPARATORY SCHOOLS.

President JAMES C. WELLING, of Columbian University, Washington, D. C., read the following paper :

For the purposes of the discussion to which I restrict myself in this paper, it is assumed that by the "study of English" is meant the study of our mother-tongue with primary reference to its literature, and that by English literature is meant the artistic expression, in prose and verse, of the best mind of the English-speaking race, that is the "literature of power," as distinguished, in the well-known terms of De Quincey, from the "literature of knowledge." In every work of high literary art we shall find certain elements which are ponderable in terms of knowledge, appealing, as they do, to the purely cognitive faculty, and certain others, which are imponderable in terms of mere knowledge because they appeal to feeling and to the sense of beauty in the soul of man. The ponderable elements lend themselves readily to critical judgment and intellectual appreciation. What Wordsworth called "the exceedingly valuable chains of thought" in his "Excursion" are quite ponderable by the pure reason, indeed, they are sometimes quite ponderous, but they do not weigh much in point of literary art. The imponderable elements, though they cannot be weighed quantitatively in the scales of the pure reason, can be felt qualitatively in the mental reactions which attest their presence wherever they find the appropriate æsthetic sense, that is the spiritual discernment which has been touched by sentiment and culture into the finer issues of æsthetic perception. The bloom-like beauty of Shelley's lyrical verse ; the recondite spirituality of Tennyson, half-concealed, half-revealed by his inimitable deftness of touch ; the subtle intuitions of human character flashed upon us by the spectroscopic genius of Browning, are seen at once to be incommunicable by a cold and matter-of-fact analysis, but it is for this very reason that literary art comes in them to such fine and high expression.

It is not pretended that the "power" which is in literature can be as directly and as easily transfused from mind to mind as the "knowledge" which is in literature, but this fact makes only the stronger argument for a more direct and a more intense study of the literature which has power in it than of the literature that has only knowledge in it. It is not pretended that the power in literature can be as certainly transfused from mind to mind as the knowledge in literature, but it is precisely because the former depends so much more than the latter on what is called the "personal equation," that literary art demands a specialized culture for its due appreciation.

Such being the difficulties and such being the exactions of high literary art, it is seen at once that the presence and quality of this art ought to be best perceived and most surely felt in works of genius which are bodied forth in the reader's vernacular tongue. Our mother-speech is the natural sounding-board of the emotions. Outside of his native speech the most practiced literary critic may often err in his judgments,

as we may see in Jean Paul when he held it to be "undoubted that there is nothing more splendid in the English language than Young's 'Night Thoughts,'" or as we may see in De Quincey when he averred that "Paganism has no more brilliant master of composition than Velleius Paterculus."

The order in which I shall here discuss the objects and the stages of study in our vernacular tongue would seem in large measure to dictate and to determine the methods that should be pursued. In the early stages of mental evolution very much will depend, of course, on the Minerva in the student and on the felicity or infelicity of his home surroundings. The important thing at the threshold of education is to generate in the student what Gibbon called in his own case "an invincible love of reading." Good digestion, if the mind be properly directed, will soon wait on literary appetite. The youngster may, like Shelley, begin with a fondness for Mrs. Radcliffe's novels, but this purely sensational love of reading must not be allowed to go unchecked till it stifle the fruits of taste and culture. The judicious and sympathetic teacher may here interpose with advantage, if he have the taste as well as the wisdom which is profitable for doctrine and correction. I say, "if he have the *taste* as well as the wisdom," for he who would teach the literature of power must himself feel its power, at least for all the purposes of sympathetic interpretation.

While the youthful memory is plastic and retentive, it should be made a repository of choice English literature, especially of good English poetry. This suggestion with regard to the quickening uses of memory, when applied to poetry in early life, is supported by high literary authority from Horace to Hallam. And the choice may here be determined by motives which are didactic, patriotic, sentimental or humorous, as well as for reasons which are pre-eminently cultural and artistic. Poems which are freighted with thought, like Goldsmith's "Traveller," or informed by the imagination, like Bryant's "Water-fowl"—(simple poems are here instanced because they are level to the youthful sense)—if once stored in the chambers of imagery will be profitable in all after life for literary inspiration and intellectual refreshment. We cannot all hope to have the fathomless memory of Lord Macaulay, but we can all envy him the pleasure to which he confessed when, in once traveling by night from Holyhead to Dublin, he tells us that he sat in the starlight on the deck of the ship, "and went through 'Paradise Lost' in his head." Satan and Gabriel, with the ship's deck for a stage and with the ship's lamps for footlights, became to him, he says, "quite like two of Shakespeare's men," and he was sorry when the sights and sounds of Dublin Bay called him off from the colloquy between Adam and the archangel Michael.

I venture moreover to suggest that the student should not only familiarize himself with choice literature, learned by heart in his early years, but should also be encouraged to select and to cherish the masters of style who shall have for him the lifting power of high ideals in the art of expression. Not indeed, that he is to hold them for purposes of low and servile imitation, but for purposes of high and liberal inspiration.

Voltaire, we know, kept the *Athalie* of Racine and the *Petit Carême* of Massillon on his writing table. John Bright sustained his stately eloquence at concert pitch by the constant study of Milton's poetry. And the lover of literature will sometimes enjoy best the literary art which is of another kind than his own, as Byron, the poet of the passions, fed his taste on Pope, the poet of correctness. The prose style of Milton may be of perennial use to set the emotions in right time, though nobody in these days of "all men's and every man's best style" would think of opening its great organ-stops to intone over again "the seven-fold chorus of hallelujahs and harping symphonies" which still reverberate in one of his masterpieces.

As the shades of the school-house begin to close around the growing boy, and as the visions of young romance, whether evoked by the "Arabian Nights," by Bunyan's "Pilgrim" or by "Robinson Crusoe," begin to fade into the light of common day, that is, into the dry light of knowledge, the youth is taking his first steps from the realm of crude fancy into the realm of crude cognition. This is a critical stage in the psychological development of every boy. "It is remarkable," says Göthe, "how the power of understanding gets the start of that of expressing, so that a man may comprehend all that he hears, while as yet he can express but a very small part of it." Indeed the cognitive faculty, if too much divorced from the faculty of literary expression, may work to the partial paralysis or even the partial atrophy of the latter, as we must have all seen in the case of eminent scholars who were dungeons of learning, but whose literary style was as juiceless as the cylinder of Nebuchadnezzar.

"Of all the arts in which the wise excel,
Nature's chief masterpiece is writing well,"

and though this couplet is as true now as when Cumberland first wrote it, we shall still find many a wise man who does not know how to set his apples of gold in pictures of silver, because he has never given due care to the art of expression. This art of expression comes only by the most painstaking and unremitting practice, begun early and continued late. No "Open Sesame" leads into the Palace of Art, and no mauling of "Open Barley" or "Open Rye" borrowed from the rhetoric books, can here be of the slightest avail. We know from Juvenal that the Roman school-boys were drilled in constant thesis writing, and that, for culture in the art of expression, they were made to thumb Horace till the page grew dingy, and to pore over Virgil till the soot from their lamps made the volumes black.

*Cum totus recolor esset
Flaccus, et hareret nigro fuligo Maroni.*

It should be added that this hard, careful and untiring practice in the art of literary expression is especially obligatory on the student of English style. That master of our language, the late George P. Marsh, was wont to hold it a more difficult accomplishment among the English-speaking race to write correct English than the Frenchman finds it to

write correct French. The inferiority of English prose to French prose was matter of doctrine with Matthew Arnold. And, as if this were not enough, Coleridge has expressed the opinion—(an opinion, I think, in which the students of comparative literature will concur)—that the genius of the English language demands a denser body of thought as the condition of high literary polish than suffices for the purpose of the literary artist who works in certain other of the modern tongues. Beauty of literary form, though not fashioned primarily for the sake of containing the stint of intellectual or moral truth which it enfolds, will always be found to require a certain solidity of substance in the underlying thought. It was only the statue fashioned by Pygmalion in solid ivory which the goddess of beauty quickened into life and feeling. The myth may be treated as an allegory which, according to Coleridge, explains itself best in English literary form.

There are those who would seem to hint to us that the study of literary art is of the more bounden obligation on the men of this generation. We are told, and not always sportively, that it is the ultimate mission of positive science to disenchant the world of the glamour wrought by the literature of power. "Knowledge," they tell us, is destined not only to go from more to more, but in the end to be all in all. In view of the vast deltas of technical terminology washed down by the swelling streams of modern science into our dictionaries and our daily speech, a great literary artist, the late James Russell Lowell, once confessed to the fear that we may soon have to dredge for our English through whole continents of scientific silt, and that "the well of English undefiled" may at length run dry because it will be filled up. Let there be no misgivings of this kind. True it may be, as Huxley says, that physical science, in these latter days, "has brought to the front an inexhaustible supply of heavy artillery, of a new pattern, warranted to drive solid bolts of fact through the thickest skulls." Literary art, speaking to the souls of men through their mother-tongues, will continue to do its gentle spiriting in the face of this "heavy artillery," even though it be charged with smokeless powder. It would be better to say that the exact sciences call for precision and correctness of speech. That in fact they sometimes do promote felicity as well as accuracy of literary expression we may see in the example of Huxley himself, master of English style as he is.

But culture of literary expression is not enough for the scientific mind. The most illustrious votary of modern science has warned us against the Nemesis which may result from a too exclusive addiction to scientific method. Darwin tells us in his autobiography that "up to the age of thirty or beyond it" he found great pleasure in poetry of many kinds, such as the works of Milton, Gray, Byron, Wordsworth, Coleridge and Shelley, but that after his mind became "a kind of machine for grinding general laws out of large collections of facts," he was visited with "a curious and lamentable loss of the higher æsthetic tastes." And the loss of these tastes involved, he thought, not only a loss of happiness, but might be presumed to have carried with it a possible damage to his intellect and a more than probable damage to

his moral nature. In this view he added that if he had to live his life over again, he "would make it a rule to read some poetry at least once every week."

I come in the next place to consider the historical, the linguistic and the philological side of literary art. I hold, it will be seen, that we should approach the study of English from its purely literary side, for purposes of æsthetic culture rather than intellectual discipline. But good style, as Dean Swift reminds us, "is proper words in proper places," and good English style is proper English words arranged in proper places according to English idiom. There comes a time when studies in the history of English literature, studies in its changing forms, studies in English idiom, and studies in English philology may be made ancillary to literary art, as they certainly are necessary, at a certain stage of culture, for the developed reason and the critical judgment. But from studies of this kind we must not hope for too much in the domain of either art or taste. Very true it is, as Henry Morley says, that "there is a reason for the form as well as the substance of every book that man ever wrote." And the reasons, for both, when we take a great English classic in hand, should be studied as an integral part of liberal education. Indeed, studies under this head should begin in the preparatory school, and the conditions of admission into the Freshman Class of colleges should comprise examinations not only in English idiom and in English literary forms, but also in certain great English classics prescribed from time to time (if possible with uniformity), in the college year books. Yet these studies *in* literature should never be allowed to degenerate into mere studies *about* literature, least of all should they be allowed to degenerate into Dryasdustian commentations of the *grammatici*—men whose learning, as Milton describes it, lies in "marginal stuffings," and who, "like good sumpters, lay down their horse-loads of citations at your door." It is, we all admit, of great importance that we should know the lexical, the grammatical and the prosodical system of Chaucer, but must we all drudge in the classroom over the six-text edition of the Chaucer Society? The economics of textual study has its division of labor, and there is a time for everything under the sun. We read in the "Dunciad" that the critic eye, when turned into "a microscope of wit" and doomed to examine a work of art "bit by bit," will come at last to see only "hairs and pores." Philological science is indispensable in its time and place, but it should not be allowed to exact on taste and culture in the classroom. All experience shows that collateral studies about literature do not help us much toward the attainment of that which is inspiring in the direct study of good literature. Grammar does not help as much in the hour and article of composition, however much it may afterward help us to correct with "phlegm" what we may have written with "fury." And the uses of rhetoric are here so ambiguous that Quintilian was much puzzled to decide whether rhetoric were an "art" or a "science," and Cicero tells us that his brother Quintus was wont to say that one rhetoric-master at a time was enough for the whole Roman commonwealth.

"Of all facts concerning art," says Ruskin, "this is the one most necessary to be known, that while manufacture is the work of the hands only, art is the work of the whole spirit of man, and as that spirit is, so is the deed." Of all truths respecting art, this is the one of which he holds the right understanding to be the most "precious," and denial of which is "the most deadly."

All history, indeed, points a moral against substituting studies *about* literature for direct and sympathetic studies *in* literature. Greek literature maintained its high tradition so long as its natural sap and blood were not tainted, but it went into decline as soon as men sought for brilliancy in the cosmetic arts of the rhetoric teachers. The Roman mind took its quickening from Greek literature, and this quickening worked at first creatively, to the purposes of a pure Latin style. But when masters of Latin style began to crack jokes over "the myrrh-pot of Isocrates, the scent-boxes of his disciples and the pigments of Aristotle"—I quote from a letter of Cicero to Atticus—the time was close at hand when Roman literature was ready to go to seed. And when Roman literature went to seed in what is perhaps the best book of rhetoric ever written—I refer to the *Institutes* of Quintilian—we find that accomplished teacher bewailing the fact that Greek, as taught in the Roman schools of his day, had come to be regarded with a kind of superstition, and so was, for the most part, a hindrance rather than a help to Latin culture, while everybody knows that the publication of the *Institutes*, a work designed to show how orators could be made, marks the date at which true eloquence became extinct in Rome. What we call the Renaissance was a rejuvenation wrought in the European mind by transfusing into it the power drawn from the literatures of Greece and Rome, after the intellectual life-blood of Europe had been thinned by a too long and exclusive nurture on the chopped logic of the schoolmen. To-day, when Greek has come to be taught for philology rather than for literature, and when college graduates who can, at sight, read Plato with understanding or Aristophanes with zest, have become almost an extinct species, we are seriously discussing the place and value of Greek in the college curriculum.

The sap that runs in a green tree and the blood that courses in the veins of a living body are favorite metaphors with Cicero when he would describe the eloquence that has power in it. Emerson, in like manner, refers to certain books which have power in them when he says that they are "vital and spermatic." But books are "vital and spermatic" only when the creative spirit from which they sprang is permitted to work creatively, not when they are stretched on the dissecting table for anatomical study.

Having made this plea for literary art, for the culture of literary expression, for the study of philology as ancillary to correctness of style, and for the direct, constant and sympathetic study of great English classics, it remains to say, what hardly needs the saying, that the literature of knowledge, and the knowledge which concerns a due understanding of the literature of power, must have their rights in

English study; and that this knowledge, whether it be historical or whether it be critical, should widen its horizons with the expanding powers of the reason and with the growing exactions of the critical faculty. The literature of power in English being the best expression of great writers, it follows that we should study great writers in their individuality; that is, in their biographies. This literature of power being the best expression of *English* mind, it follows that we should study a great English classic in its relation to the national psychology of which it is the bright consummate flower; that is, we should study the element which is peculiarly or distinctively national in our typical English writers. Taine's "History of English Literature," as we all know, is a study in the national psychology of the British race, with *pièces justificatives* drawn, by way of illustration, from all that seemed to him best in English literature. The literature of power in English, though written not for a day but for all time, must needs reflect the intellectual, civil and social stir of the time in which it appeared, and should therefore be studied in that relation; that is, in its relation to *history*. This literature of power having come to expression in *English idiom*, it follows that we should study this expression with the best resources and clearest lights of linguistic science; that is, with the appliances and helps of English philology—making philology the handmaid of literary art, and not making literary art the vassal and serf of philology. And, finally, as the literature of power in English comes to us at the end of a long literary tradition, which dates from Greece and runs through Rome, Italy, France, Spain and Germany, it follows that the crown and culmination of studies in English should lead us at length to the *comparative study* of the best literature of the whole world, so far as this best literature has given color or complexion to the great English classics. The individual student can here hope, by himself, to do only a little; but there is room here for laboratory studies and for seminary studies in a thousand directions. Such advanced studies, if kept vital and vitalizing by being pursued at first hand; that is, with an adequate knowledge on the part of each student in the tongues and writers compared, may conduce as well to catholicity of taste as to breadth and purity of culture. The literature of the world is really one, only some of it is written in Hebrew, some in Greek, some in Latin, some in Italian, some in French, some in Spanish, some in Portuguese and some in English. George Saintsbury tells us that he "would not dare to continue criticising so much as a circulating-library novel, if he did not perpetually pay his respects to the classics of many literatures."

Professor J. M. HART, of Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y., read the following paper on this same topic:

The term *English*, as used in the subject assigned to me for the present paper, is susceptible of more than one meaning. As it is with only one of these meanings that I wish to deal, let me state at the outset which one it is. By "English" I intend the correct, easy, clear and forcible use of the English language for the written communication of

thought. The word thought I use, loosely but conveniently, to designate not merely thought proper, cogitation, but feeling and sentiment, recollection, opinion and impression.

I disclaim expressly any desire to enter upon the subject of English literature. I look upon the question submitted to me as a purely practical one: Does the average American student write well? If he does not, where may we put the blame and look for the remedy?

In the light of all that has been written in the past twelvemonth, it will hardly be necessary to prove that the average American does *not* write well. If any one in this audience hold to the contrary, I can only ask him to administer for one week the English department, or in fact, any department involving writing, in any American college. For my own part I am disposed to take the gravest, almost a pessimistic view, of the situation. What depresses me most is not the mere fact that blunders are committed in college papers of every grade and in every subject, but rather the indifference, the apathy, evinced by those who make the blunders, and even by those whose office it is to note and correct them. Although there are moments in which I feel as if we were threatened with a cataclysm of bad grammar, atrocious spelling, misunderstood words, slang, limping sentences, incoherent paragraphs, and still more incoherent thoughts, although I can find no words strong enough to convey my apprehension of the danger impending over our noble English speech, yet I do not find that my apprehension is shared very fully or very keenly by the greater part of my colleagues. They readily admit that bad English is a nuisance. They are ready to vote for general measures of a kind to suppress the evil. But when it comes to making these general measures effective, to applying them to the *individual offender*, then they waver, falter, condone, tolerate and thereby encourage the offence.

It is precisely this *toleration*, whether in college or in school, that occasions the evil and prevents its cure. On this point I cherish no illusions. So long as a scholar in school, a student in college, is *passed* along from class to class, from year to year, is graduated from our institutions of high degree or of low degree, in spite of his glaring defects in the use of English, just so long I shall despair. On the other hand, when I see men conditioned, rejected, "dropped" for bad English, I shall begin to hope.

The entire problem turns on this one point: Shall we *insist* upon good English, make it the one indispensable criterion of all school and college work? If we insist upon it, we shall get it; if we do not insist, we shall never get it.

Do we insist upon it? How often have I replied to one or another of my colleagues, complaining of his struggles with bad spelling and splay-footed sentences: "Dear colleague, the remedy is in your own hands. Why accept such papers? Why not reject or at least condition the writers? Just as long as you accept bad papers, just so long you will get them. If you really wish your students to spell *gas* and not *gass*, refuse to pass the *ss*, and your trials and tribulations will end."

Well, this is what I say and truly believe. But, alas, the dear colleague usually cherishes the illusion that four overworked and underpaid instructors, giving two hours a week for two years to a motley mass of four hundred crude youth, are going to turn out finished specimens of care and accuracy in all the reasoning and all the terminology of all the sciences.

The school counterpart to this college psychology is the superstition that to inculcate correct expression is the function of a single teacher, a poor mortal whom any scholar is privileged to circumvent if he can.

You will have observed, doubtless, that I couple school and college continually. It is in truth of set purpose that I refrain from drawing any dividing line. The work for both, although it may differ somewhat in degree and form, is in substance the same. In fact, from the point of view of a really scientific school system, there should be no college English whatever. Is it not the business of every good school to teach all the art of expression that can be required of anyone? Why is the college forced to use, yes, to waste its time and resources in imparting to the undergraduate that moderate facility in expression which should be possessed by every young person of nineteen? How other colleges may compare in this matter I do not venture to say; but assuredly Cornell is wasting many thousand dollars and much valuable time in doing school work. We do it, shall I say, because we have not the courage to insist upon our rights. But even were we to insist upon our rights, as we may and I hope soon will, how could that help the community at large? The gift of writing is the inalienable right of every boy and girl in school. It is the duty of the school, as school, to impart that gift, irrespective of college, it is a duty owed to the pupil and not to the college professor.

This was the consideration which I urged in my paper in the *School Review* of last January, and it is gratifying to perceive that the Regents of this State accepted the view and acted upon it promptly. How far their new curriculum will advance the cause of sound English we cannot yet determine precisely. But certainly it is a long step in the right direction, and it cannot be fairly criticised until it has been fairly tested. I do not look upon it as a finality, but only as an improvement.

The changes introduced by the Regents are threefold.

1. The school *must* give three English exercises a week throughout the curriculum.
2. There is to be a special examiner and inspector for English in the Regents' office.
3. Good English, penmanship, and neatness are to be required in all papers submitted to the Regents, whatever be the subject matter. And any paper deficient in these respects will not be *passed* by the Regents.

In form, at least, these regulations go to the root of the matter, and are available for all schools, public or private. In fact, the private schools can and should increase the requirements. Three exercises a week do not seem time enough. There should be one exercise in

English composition every day. This demand will not appear excessive, if we consider that the high school or preparatory school seldom has a longer curriculum than four years, usually has a curriculum of only three years, and the additional circumstance that school exercises are not usually full hours but last only forty or forty-five minutes. On this basis the Regents' allowance may possibly be enough for bright pupils, but it is scarcely enough for the middle and lower half. For these pupils, who most need the instruction, we ought to have the assurance that they are to spend, at least, forty minutes every day in the English room, twenty minutes say in reading and interpreting some good author, twenty minutes in writing upon what they have read.

To grapple intelligently with the English problem so-called, let us consider its conditions.

They are the following:

1. Writing is an *art*. It is not a science, a branch of knowledge, something to be mastered through the operation of the logical faculties. It is an *art*, to speak more accurately, what the Germans call *eine Fertigkeit*, a dexterity to be acquired through incessant practice and incessant correction. It does not differ, in this respect, from piano or violin playing, from skating, from dancing, from freehand drawing. Although more generally useful than these others, it is to be acquired in the same way, *i. e.*, through incessant practice and incessant correction. The musician, we know, practices many hours every day for many years before he masters his technique. The would-be writer deals with a technique less complicated, it is true, than note-rendering, but one that is perhaps more subtle. At all events his technique is a gift of slow acquisition. It is emphatically *not* a feat to be achieved with a rush of enthusiasm and a concentration of purpose such as will not infrequently carry one over the hard places in mathematics or in Latin grammar. It can be acquired only through a long process of development, in which the pupil is trained step by step until he learns to use the correct word and phrase *unconsciously*.

2. The art of correct expression is at a great disadvantage compared with all other schoolwork; namely, it is exposed to the most baleful undermining and corrosion. To make the point clear, let us compare English with *e. g.* Latin. The teacher of Latin in a given school may not be especially good, the pupil may be dull; yet the labor of the teacher is not incessantly undone outside of the Latin room by bad Latin used by playmate, brother, sister or parent. Whereas the English teacher has to overcome contaminating influences in every quarter. His pupil is exposed to the contagion of bad grammar, slovenly wording and slang from nearly every person with whom he comes in contact, from many of the books and certainly from all the newspapers that he reads. He lives in an atmosphere reeking with malaria, the effects of which can be counteracted only through long constitutional treatment.

3. I have already mentioned correction as an essential part of the training. But it is so important as to call for a separate paragraph. By correction I mean that the teacher should mark carefully in ink every fault or vice and return the paper with his corrections thus

entered. A very bad paper he should require to be re-written entire. In returning any paper he should also call the writer's attention specifically to certain mistakes and give a word or two of verbal explanation. And last, but emphatically not least, he should return the paper promptly, if possible the next day. If he keeps it so long as to let it become half forgotten by the writer, his criticism will lose more than half its point.

4. For general school-training the short daily paper is the one indispensable agency. But it is not the only agency. It may and should be supplemented by an occasional essay of some length, to be prepared at home. For the essay embodies certain features of composition which are not to be found in mere paragraph-writing. But, after all, the daily writing of a paragraph or two in the *classroom*, upon a subject sufficiently discussed in class, should, in my judgment, constitute at least four-fifths, certainly two-thirds, of all the work. Such writing offers two advantages. It guarantees effectively against fraud, it gives the teacher an accurate knowledge of what the pupil really has at his command. To write at home, with leisure to consult dictionaries and books of reference, is one thing; quite another is it to write down on the spot what we know, just as we know it. Yet this off-hand writing is the kind that one is usually required to furnish in after life. How, then, can it be neglected by any institution that professes to train for life-work?

5. The choice of proper subjects for composition is the crucial test of the whole system. How may the teacher secure an unfailing supply of subjects not too hard, too dry, too abstruse, nor, on the other hand, too trivial and commonplace? My answer is: By giving his pupil questions, short problems as it were, taken from or directly suggested by their daily reading, by letting reading and writing be mutually helpful; by making the reading a feeder to the writing, the writing an interpretation of the reading. In so doing he merely carries out the principle, so often overlooked, that writing is an *imitative* art. He trains the pupil to write well by encouraging him to *imitate* some one who has written well. I hold this to be perfectly sound psychology. It disposes of the common assertion that we are to teach the young to be original. The young cannot possibly be original; even a decided genius rarely gives clear indications of originality under the age of twenty to twenty-five. All great writers known to me, like all great painters, have begun by imitation. And in truth I know no other way to success. It is only after the boy has mastered his technique and matured into the young man with pronounced ideas and sentiments of his own, that he is likely to offer anything original. But what has this originality to do with school work or even with college work? We can not *require* it. Therefore, as our systems of education deal only with what may be required, our system of unity must be restricted to the acquisition of technique.

The books prescribed for admission to the New England colleges and to Cornell afford abundant material for composition. This is demonstrated by the example of the Cascadilla school, which has followed for some years the plan of requiring its scholars to read every one

of these books thoroughly and to write them up section by section, at least one paper to each important section. The contents of the book, the story and characters, are explained by the teacher.

I have no better plan than this to propose. It seems to meet every reasonable demand. First, it awakens and sustains an interest in good reading. The Cascadilla teachers inform me that their boys become so interested in the study that they buy additional books out of their pocket money and read them for the mere pleasure. In the second place, it makes the pupils familiar with various kinds of good style, and gives them a stock of liberal ideas, and a wide vocabulary. Finally, it does away with all the terrors that have attended the old-fashioned "composition." Every boy, whether literary or not in his tastes, can write something sensible upon a chapter in *David Copperfield*, or a scene in *Evangeline*. There is a still farther gain for those of literary tastes; they are in this way initiated unconsciously into literary study and culture. Have we not banished culture from our schools, and are we not paying the penalty? Our schools, yes and our colleges too, are turning out mathematicians, grammarians, historians, scientists in general. But for culture, for the refining and strengthening of the boy or young man in his entirety, they effect almost nothing. I should like to see the seeds of culture planted in the school-years. If carefully tended there, they will bear abundant fruit in after-years. Besides, the reading and writing that I propose will not be felt as a hardship. I am confident that every scholar of normal constitution will feel the English hour to be a pleasure, a relaxation from the grind of mathematics and foreign grammar.

That many, if not most schools, fail to look upon the reading of good English books in the true light and persist in treating it as something to be got out of altogether or reduced to a safe minimum, is well known. There are "coaches," to use the technical term, who scrutinize the entrance-papers set at a given college for say three years back, discover that certain books, and even certain subjects in those books, are favored in the entrance examination, concentrate the preparation of their pupils upon those books or topics, and neglect everything else. This is, of course, unscrupulous "jockeying." The college can protect itself by making the examination cover all the books, and this is what I purpose doing at Cornell. But, after all, college requirements are not, I repeat, the main object in school-work. The development of the pupil is the main object, and this development is materially curtailed by such unscrupulousness.

6. There is one more condition, or factor, which is all-important in this problem, but which, to the best of my knowledge, has been thus far overlooked in the already voluminous discussion. I mean the *teacher* of English. Should he not be, like every other teacher, *specialty trained* for his work? This is the theory, but not so the practice. Is it not still the custom to look upon any possessor of a college diploma as good enough to teach English? That it is the custom will appear from the following incident. Last June, soon after commencement, I was approached by a member of the class that had just graduated. He

informed me that he had been appointed teacher of English in a very large training school in a neighboring State, and asked me frankly to tell him how to go about his work. As he was quite a stranger to me, I inquired into his general course in the university (it was either letters or philosophy) and his English studies in particular. I discovered that he had been admitted on certificate, passed up in Freshman English on a slight, almost nominal examination, had taken the old Sophomore English (one hour for one year) and there stopped. He had taken advantage of the peculiar and unfortunate state of affairs that existed at Cornell just before my arrival, had complied with the letter of the law, and was now ready to do by others as he had been done by. Naturally I improved the opportunity by reading him a sermon upon his shortcoming, and asked him how he expected to make his pupils appreciate the advantages of an English course and whether he considered himself qualified to represent Cornell.

Were the case an isolated one, there would be no gain from mentioning it. But, alas, it is only one out of many. Doubtless it represents a large percentage, perhaps even the majority, of training schools. Therefore, I raise the question emphatically: What can be expected of such a teacher? Not interested himself in the work, he must of necessity fail to interest his pupils. His teaching will be perfunctory, and presumably careless. And his pupils will grow careless with him.

On the other hand, a teacher imbued with zeal for his department, qualified for it by long and generous preparation, will be an inspiration in the school room. Not only will he get a fair average of industry from all his pupils, but he will be able—as only the specialist is able—to encourage and develop individuality. Precisely this individuality is the great desideratum in our school instruction, and more of a desideratum in English than in any other subject. We can teach boys to parse alike and work out equations alike, but we cannot teach them to write alike. The utmost that we can effect is to secure uniformly correct spelling and phrase-structure, all the rest is individual. Hence the teacher of English should have, above all others, the gift of adaptability. It should be his privilege and his duty to encourage every manifestation of individuality that does not violate normal good taste. The boy who is matter-of-fact and precise, he is to stimulate; the boy who is fanciful and flighty, he is to curb; but neither boy is he to crush into uniformity. Yet, a desire of uniformity, a desire to make every member of a class express himself upon the same subject in the same way, is the inevitable bias of the illiberal, untrained teacher. Under such a teacher the mediocre pupils stumble, and those of literary promise grow weary and disgusted.

So far as Cornell is concerned, Professor Emerson and myself have agreed to recommend for teacherships only such graduates as have taken the full course of four years in rhetoric, two years of required work, two of elective, and at least one course in the history of the language. We deem this policy to be the only wise and just one. Our senior rhetoric is now avowedly a seminary for the training of teachers. In it we read and criticise all the books of the New England College program, we

test the books by rhetorical principles and we also test the principles by the books. It is my expectation that the graduates of this class will be able to fill satisfactorily the position of English teacher in any good school.

7. Concerning the determining value of English in the general school or college curriculum, I have already spoken. But it may be advisable to formulate my views more precisely.

a. Practice in writing should be compulsory throughout the high-school course.

b. It should be compulsory in the first and second years of the college course. Certainly until the school work has been so raised in quantity and quality as to warrant us in dispensing with college work.

c. Failure in English should disqualify any one from graduation from any institution, whether school or college. We have no right to certify to the world, as an educated person, one who is unable to express himself clearly and correctly in his mother-tongue. As to the college, in particular, it is a *felo da se* when it admits any candidate evidently deficient. The examination papers and other papers of such a person will be a nuisance to those who are called upon to read them. They impede and vitiate the entire function of teaching. One of our younger faculty members, after reading the written reports made by a special section of students in physical science, declared that although their experimentation was good their wording was so confused that he had to construct a separate psychology for each writer, in order to deduce his meaning. One of our older professors assured me that in going over the thesis work of a senior, for graduation, he was forced to spend more time over the senior's English than over his investigations. It would be disloyal to speak too harshly of one's own university. I comfort myself with the reflection that we are no worse than our neighbors. I doubt if Harvard, Yale or Columbia can afford to throw stones at Cornell.

The evil is a monstrous one, and I see no cure for it save through amputation. We shall not be troubled long with it, if only we apply without flinching the knife of condition and rejection. And by *we* I mean *all* teachers and professors in school or in college, whether in Latin or in history or in science, and not the mere handful engaged in teaching English as a specialty. All educators should be of one mind in declining to pass any paper badly written.

The following statement of the method now in force at Cornell is not offered as a model. Each college will know best what method is most available in its own peculiar case. Yet it may interest those present to learn what is attempted at one of the larger institutions.

English is required during the first two years of all students in general courses. It is not required of technical students, and this I deem a great mistake. For technical students are precisely the ones most in need of this training. The exemption of technical students was voted by the faculty before my coming to Cornell; it is quite probable that the faculty will before long reconsider its action.

The Freshman Class is taught by two instructors, in sections of about twenty-four each. Each section meets its instructor two full hours every week. In the first term they read two essays by De Quincey; in the second term, one by Macaulay; in the third, one by Carlyle. All the writing is upon or in direct connection with the reading. In the first term we require one or two essays prepared at home; in each of the other terms two essays. Every essay is criticised in a reading appointment of ten or fifteen minutes, held privately with the writer. During the present year we are requiring also in two recitation hours out of three a short paper, thirty minutes, written in the room. These are returned the next hour with corrections. After the present year it is our expectation to secure still more writing. We have the assurance that two assistants will be appointed to aid the two instructors. These assistants, properly called readers, will read and correct all the short papers written in class. The instructors will then be free to increase the number and improve the quality of the essays. In this way we are planning to get say eight long essays in the course of the year and one short paper every instruction hour.

The Sophomore Class, which is much smaller than the Freshman, is conducted by Assistant Professor O. F. Emerson, in four sections, each two hours a week. The reading and correction of both short papers and essays is in charge of an assistant. The reading is in Johnson, Goldsmith, Gibbon, and Burke.

In the Freshman Class we are now using a manual of rhetoric, but it is not satisfactory, and we shall probably substitute for it a very brief syllabus prepared by myself. The stress in this year is laid upon the correct use of words, for which De Quincey, Macaulay, and Carlyle offer signal illustration, and upon the structure of the paragraph. The work of the Sophomore Class is of course much freer, stress being laid upon development of thought and arrangement of theme. There is in this year less short-paper work and more essay writing. The number of essays is not increased, but each essay is made longer and represents more collateral home reading.

It will be evident to you that our system is not a marvel of perfection. Its defects are obvious enough. At present we have poor material to deal with and scant measure of time. Nevertheless the system is practical and the good effects are already showing themselves. As soon as our new entrance requirements come into operation we shall hope for still better results. In any case I may assert without boasting that our English course is no joke, as many a student has found out to his cost in the last year or two, and that students in the general courses at least will not graduate without the ability to express themselves clearly and coherently.

Dr. EDWARD BROOKS, Superintendent of Schools, Philadelphia, Pa., presented the following paper:

It is asserted that the graduates of our higher institutions of learning are deficient in a knowledge of English. If this is true it is a grievous fault and demands immediate remedy. Better neither Latin,

Greek, nor science than ignorance of the mother-tongue. Assuming the charge to be true, the cause of the defect ought not to be difficult to discover. It lies at the door either of the preparatory school, or the college, or both. How to find and apply the remedy is the educational problem of the hour.

In expressing a few thoughts upon the subject I remark first that instruction in English embraces two things which may be distinguished as the technics of the language and the reality of the language; in other words, the form and spirit of the language. The technics of English includes correct spelling, correct pronunciation, grammatical accuracy, proper use of capitals and punctuation marks, and the ability to construct clear and correct sentences. The contents of expression, including the thought, the sentiment, the poetic imagery, the happy collocation of words—these are quite different from the technical part of the language and require different methods of instruction. The aim of the collegiate course should be to secure this latter end; the aim of the preparatory school should be to secure the former end, and also to lay a foundation for the higher attainments of the collegiate course. The function of the college and preparatory school in relation to the preparation in English is therefore somewhat distinct, though looking forward to the same high attainment in the future.

THE WORK OF THE PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

For instruction in the simpler elements of the technics of English, the secondary schools are responsible. If a pupil enters college without a fair knowledge of spelling, punctuation, grammatical construction, etc., it is the fault of the preparatory school. A secondary school that recommends for admission into college a student who cannot spell all ordinary words and write grammatical English should be regarded as incompetent for its work. Language work should therefore be made prominent in the curriculum of these schools. Reading, spelling, punctuation, sentence making, writing compositions, etc., should constitute a prominent part of the course of instruction. There should be a thorough drill in the elements of rhetoric and the practical principles of English grammar.

For this training in the technics of English, the study of rules and principles is not sufficient. Language is an art and like all other arts is to be learned by imitation and practice. The student must become familiar with good models in order to express himself with elegance and correctness. He should read, copy, and commit choice passages from the poets and orators that he may become familiar with literary forms and acquire the literary feeling and aptitude. The old method of declamation had its advantages in this respect; I have known graduates of college whose style was moulded by their school-boy orations rather than by the instruction of the collegiate course. Besides the influence of these models, there should be constant practice in oral and written compositions in the secondary school. In no subject is the principle "we learn to do by doing" more applicable than here.

It has been thought that these results might be secured by a thorough drill in English grammar, but experience proves that it is of little value in this respect. Instruction in the science of grammar has its value, but it does not usually do much toward imparting a practical knowledge of the use of English. Language was before grammar; grammar originated in the study of language. A person may use good English with very little knowledge of grammatical principles. Plato knew only the noun and the verb as grammatical elements, and yet the Republic is resplendent with classic literary beauty. Homer sang his immortal epics long before the scholars of Alexandria began the study of his poems for the purpose of unfolding the grammatical laws of Greek. We want something beyond and better than the study of grammar in the secondary schools to prepare girls and boys in English for entering college.

The secondary schools should cultivate a taste for good reading, for this is the key to a knowledge of the English language. The person who from early childhood has been accustomed to the reading of good books is usually characterized by the use of elegant and finished English. Boys and girls with the reading habit often come out of our families with such a practical knowledge of the language that but little drill is needed to make them familiar with the technics of the subject. One reason for the deficiency of our boys in English is that they have no taste for literature and have not read enough. Our people read more than ever before in the history of the world; our school-boys read less, I sometimes think, than they did thirty years ago. The attention of youth seems to be attracted away from this most important source of literary culture by other interests not always educational in their nature. The conversation of the students in the secondary schools is often more about their "base-ball nine" or their "foot-ball team" than the studies they are pursuing or the books they are reading; and I may add that the same thing is largely true of the colleges. If some way could be found of arousing at least one-half as much interest in literature as in athletics the work of the school would be greatly improved. Any school or college that can do this will have little cause to complain of the deficiency of their graduates in English, for upon such a basis they easily build up a knowledge of the technics of the subject.

In all this training it should be remembered that the content of expression is to be regarded as well as the form. The forms of language must be filled with thought content in order to give them proper shape. Indeed the preparation of the material of expression has an important influence on the method of expression. The nature of the thought determines to a large extent the manner in which the thought is to be expressed. The mistake is often made in requiring students to write upon subjects about which they either have no ideas or are unconscious of the knowledge which they actually possess. Pupils must be taught to observe, and to express the results of their observation. To send a lot of young reporters out from the school into the byways or the street to see what is to be seen and describe what they see, will be a

most useful exercise in composition. Further than this, pupils must be taught to reduce perception into reflection; they must be taught to draw inferences, form opinions, and express them in suitable language. The creative power of imagination must be brought into play, and the fable, the fairy story, the fancy sketch, the imaginary incident, etc., may all be used in the culture of the power to originate and express literary material. A thousand devices may be employed in the secondary school in creating a love for literary work which will result in a knowledge of good English and the ability to use it.

The arrangement of such a course is not difficult. Much of the work suggested is technical, and there is no difficulty in teaching technical subjects. A course in this part of English is as easily arranged as a course in Latin or geometry, and it is just about as easily taught. There are definite things for the student to remember and to do, and he can be drilled until they are fixed in the memory and he has acquired the habit of doing them with facility and accuracy. To teach the boys of the preparatory school to write correct English with correct spelling, capitalization, punctuation, paragraphing and logical sequence of ideas, is no more difficult than to prepare them in Latin or algebra. If in addition to this a taste and love for literary work is developed by the preparatory school, so much the better.

THE WORK OF THE COLLEGE IN ENGLISH.

But the fault and the duty rest not alone with the preparatory school. The college has a mission in this respect not less important than that of the secondary school. Much of what is done in the secondary school is to be repeated on a higher plane in the college course. The principles of grammar, the science of rhetoric, the logical evolution of ideas upon subjects, the study of poetic and prose composition—all these, in a practical form, should be a part of the college curriculum and practice. The college should put the finishing touches on the technique of literary training and culture. But all this, though of great importance, is not sufficient, it is to be supplemented with what, if possible, is still more important, and that is a course in English literature. Here we reach the crowning work in the course of instruction in English either in secondary or higher education.

Literature is the thought and sentiment of the best minds of the best ages embodied in language, and as a source of culture for the young it is without a rival in the realm of knowledge. Natural science may train to exactness of observation, but literature develops character. Mathematics may cultivate the power of logical reflection, but literature quickens the soul with great ideas and moral sentiments. The study of science may produce the keen intelligence and the power of broad generalization, but literature fills the soul with lofty aspirations and leads to that mental richness and ripeness known by the name of wisdom. The scholar, the thinker, the wise man, these three, but the greatest of these is wisdom, and the best study for its attainment is literature.

Admitting the transcendent value of the study of literature in education, the question of the hour is, how is the subject to be taught? To answer this question one must have a clear conception of what instruction in literature comprehends. Toward the attainment of this end we remark first that a course in literature should include a knowledge of the various authors, the time when and place where they lived, under what circumstances and influences they wrote, the motives of their productions, and their influence upon their times and nation. Such knowledge is essential to a course in literature; it cannot be omitted without marring the course of instruction; and yet it is of little value in respect to real literary culture. A man may have all this and possess no literary taste or skill in literary composition. It is purely of the intellect, largely indeed of the memory, and is in no sense what we mean by literary culture.

Secondly, a course in literature should embrace a knowledge of the different works of the principal authors of the world. The student is expected to be familiar with the masterpieces of literature, to understand their structure and peculiarities, to remember the incidents of the epics, the stories and characters of the dramas, the sentiments of the lyrics, the merits and defects of the greater as well as many of the minor writers. He should be familiar with the historic and mythical allusions, the special force of particular methods of expression, the general transitions in the meaning of words, etc. But this knowledge, as valuable and necessary as it is, is not necessarily literary culture. All these things may be and there be no deep and sincere appreciation of the charms of the masterpieces of literature. They may all be but so many facts in the memory while there is no heart throb responsive to the noble thought or touching sentiment or the felicitous expression that puts a thought in immortal setting. Learned notes such as those on Shakespeare by Rolf and Hudson are of great value to the student; but I have seen them in the hands of an unskillful teacher kill all interest in the study of the Shakespearean drama and break up the class in disgust.

Thirdly, the student should be led to a philosophical conception of the works of literature. He should be led to grasp those great laws of social and national development which are unfolded in the literature of a nation. As Taine puts it, we should place before the student "the literary forms and political images, the variation of thought, sentiment, and expression in which the soul of a nation has found delight." A poem is to be regarded not merely as the representation of a man and his genius, but as a picture of the nation in which he lives. Such a contemplation of literary productions gives a sweep of mind that broadens and deepens the intellect and enriches the philosophical nature far more than the study of the physical sciences so popular in modern education.

Yet even all this is not literary culture in the truest and best sense of the word. It may produce the scholar and thinker, but literary culture is more than either of these. All this analysis of literary compositions is of the mere intellect, and something more than intellect is

involved in literary culture. Literature is of the heart as well as of the head. It deals with sentiment—and sentiment, as Lowell tells us, is “thought with feeling in it.” “The proper office of literature,” says Taine, “is to take note of sentiments;” and again, “the more a book represents important sentiments the higher is its plane in literature.” Literary culture must therefore endeavor to reach the emotional nature of the student. The sentiment of the poet must find its counterpart in the sensibilities of the young man or woman. The heart must throb responsive to the tender thought, the noble deed, the felicitous expression, or the grand peroration. There must be a love for the subject, a taste for that which is admirable and excellent in literary composition.

It is here in the culture of a taste for literature that real literary culture begins; and it is here that the difficulty of the task of instruction is first met. So great is this difficulty that it is said that “English literature is not taught in the great English universities, the claim being that, consisting in training tastes and sentiments only, it cannot be taught, or at any rate cannot be examined upon.” Almost any one can teach the facts of literature, who can name a dozen men or women who have shown their ability to develop a love of literature on the part of their students. Many a man can analyze, and explain, and discuss, and draw inferences in respect to a literary composition, finding in it sometimes ideas and motives that the author perhaps never dreamed of, and yet have no power to touch the hearts of their pupils with genuine admiration for the excellence of the drama or epic. The majority of students come out of a literary class having passed a good examination on the facts of literature with no appreciation for the thing itself. They close their books with the doors of the class room and sell them to the members of the coming class or at the second-hand book store with no pang of parting. How few of the members of our literary classes look with loving hearts upon the real masters of expression or spend their leisure hours in filling their souls with the richness and beauty of the great master pieces of the world.

Here then lies the key, at least one of the keys, to the successful teaching of English. The work is of the sensibilities rather than, or as well as the intellect. The susceptibilities are to be awakened and trained for the perception and appreciation of those graces of literary thought and expression that mark the productions of the masters of the art. Homer, Dante, Shakespeare, Göthe, etc., must speak to the heart of the student before the first step in real literary culture has been taken.

To reach this ideal is no easy task; indeed its difficulties can hardly be overestimated. Fact studies are easily taught; it requires but little pedagogical skill to teach a class of young men or women Latin or Greek. A mathematical class will almost run itself without a teacher. But a class in literature, who is equal to the task? Where are the teachers who are equal to the demands of cultivating a love for the subject and a taste to appreciate it? Rare indeed is the man or woman endowed with this high gift. Such teachers are not impossibilities however; now and then they are found; and when found they

deserve garlands of honor around their heads. It needs men and women with rich spiritual natures and with rare magnetic souls who can touch the souls of others and awaken them to new issues of thought and feeling. It is not so much a profound knowledge of literature that is required as a deep and cordial love for it. Indeed I have sometimes thought that it is almost necessary to reverse the line that "a little learning is a dangerous thing," making it read that in teaching literature a profound learning is a dangerous thing, for profundity of learning on this subject is often the death of interest. I have seen teachers with the most minute and exact knowledge of literature fail utterly in awakening an interest in their classes; and I have known teachers of far less literary knowledge create a deep enthusiasm in the study. Here applies the motto with especial force that in teaching "inspiration is better than instruction."

Another fact should be borne in mind, that literary taste is a thing of slow growth, the work not of days or months but of years. In this respect it differs widely from most other studies. A class of students, prepared for the study, may become good geometricians in a year, or good algebraists in two years; but literary culture, like the development of character, is the result of the working of subtle and intangible influences that require time for the shaping of the æsthetic nature.

But even the cultivation of a taste for literature is not sufficient. The work to be completed must go a step further; there must be developed literary skill, the ability for original literary work. The end of literary culture is the ability to create literature as well as to understand and admire it. The literary will must be set in motion, the ambition to achieve something for the student's self must be aroused, in order to complete the work.

And here lies the most difficult task of all. Most students not only have no taste or ambition for literary composition, but they shrink from the task and regard it as a useless hardship. They assume that ability in this direction is a gift of nature and that the gift denied to many cannot be acquired. Their exercises are prepared in a perfunctory manner, without interest or confidence, and sometimes without manly honesty. The result is that the majority of the graduates of our colleges have neither a taste for literature nor any literary skill in the expression of thought. Indeed, the popular opinion is that college training is a bar to literary success. The finger is pointed to Irving, Howells, Mark Twain, Bret Harte, Dickens, Scott, Shakespeare, etc., whose achievements in the world of literature are said to demonstrate the need of special gifts and the needlessness of educational advantages for literary success. How to change this condition of things and cultivate a taste for literary work is a problem. Compulsion will not do it, the pressure of a pending examination will not effect it. The fear of a failure mark in Latin or geometry will spur many an indifferent student to effort; but no one was ever drawn into a love for literary work by the fear of a demerit mark. The successful effort in literary composition must be a free and spontaneous inspiration, rather than one of compulsion, and a feeling of delight in the creation and expression of

thought and sentiment. This is the law of successful instruction in this department. The impulse must come from within, rather than from without; and the teacher must so touch the soul of a student as to awaken and stimulate this impulse into activity.

Here then is the problem. The solution is simple in theory, but difficult in practice. The method is easily understood and readily applied. But we need more than a method, we need the man or the woman who can do the work. The success is in the teacher rather than in the method. The right man will do it no matter how poor his method; the wrong man will fail no matter how good his method. The real difficulty consists in finding teachers fitted for this work; but the work is of such transcendent importance that special efforts should be made to secure them. If they are rare, the incentive of increased compensation added to that of the dignity and excellence of the work cannot fail to attract cultivated and competent teachers into this rich field of educational labor. Let the subject be given a proper place in the curriculum, and a sufficient reward be held out for the high ability requisite for the work, and we can bring into the Chairs of Literature in our academies and colleges rich-souled men and women with magnetic power as teachers who will create a new era in the study of English.

On the topic:

ENGLISH IN THE PREPARATORY SCHOOLS,

MR. WILSON FARRAND, of Newark Academy, New Jersey, read the following paper:

There are three points in which, mainly, the English training of the pupils in our preparatory schools is not successful. At least these are the deficiencies in his own pupils that impress most strongly a school-master who is squarely facing the problem of how to make the English course all that it should be.

In the first place, there is found very frequently a decided lack of knowledge of the structure of English which shows itself both in the study of other languages and in reading and composition.

In the second place, there is often a discouraging inability to understand plain language, and in the third place, there is inadequate power of expression, the weakness showing itself particularly in diction and in sentence structure.

These, then, are the points of weakness, as seen in the results, of our English courses at present—defective grammatical knowledge, inability to comprehend language and inadequate power of expression.

What can we do to remedy these evils?

First, we can give our pupils a good working knowledge of the structure of English. The essential principles of English grammar are few and broad. These principles can be mastered at the age of twelve or thirteen. Experience shows that this is possible, but experience also shows that it is all too seldom accomplished. If this foundation is solidly laid, the work of the later years is immensely simplified.

In the second place, we can teach our pupils to read better than they do, and this is a matter in which they are sadly deficient. The value of reading as an aid in securing a good style is not so generally recognized as it should be. Reading, especially reading aloud in such a way as to bring out the meaning and force of the sentence, fixes in the mind the form of expression, and there is an unconscious tendency on the part of the reader, when he comes to express thought for himself, to reproduce the form, or at least the style, of the model.

A careful series of observations, carried on for a number of years, has led me to the conclusion that poor spelling and poor expression are very frequently due to poor reading. There is a very general tendency to read a sentence as a whole, with only so much attention as may be necessary for a fair jump at its meaning. The natural and logical result of such a habit is seen in careless and incorrect expression.

For the prevalence of this tendency our modern methods of elementary education must be held largely responsible. For its correction there is a direct and practical remedy at hand in allopathic doses of reading aloud.

In the third place, we can make our teaching of every subject more precise and definite, and can make every lesson, on whatever subject, a lesson in English. Much of the weakness of our pupils in power of expression is due to a lack of clearness and exactness of knowledge and to the lack of insistence on accurate and precise statement in recitation. Clearness of thought must precede clearness of expression, and teaching that produces clear and accurate thinking will tend to produce clear and accurate speaking and writing.

It is not enough that the pupil is able to know and to think, he must be able to make his thought and knowledge intelligible to others. The daily recitation in algebra, Latin, history or physics gives the opportunity for developing the command of language, and it is possible to embrace this opportunity without sacrificing the teaching value of the recitation and without impairing the thoroughness of the instruction in the formal subject of the lesson.

The number of intelligent teachers who deny the validity of this principle of making every lesson a lesson in English is surprising; the number of those who, assenting to it in theory, violate it in practice, is almost appalling. The more strongly this principle is impressed upon our teachers, the less complaint we shall have of the poor English used by our graduates.

A professor in one of our leading colleges remarked to me several years ago that the entrance examination papers handed in by the pupils from a certain school were noticeable for the good English used in them. I made an investigation of the work of that school. I found no more formal instruction in English than is found in the average school—and that is very little. But I found in every class a rigid insistence on clearness of thought and on precision of expression, and I think that I found the secret of the results attained when the head master said to me: "I believe that I can teach more English in my algebra class than I can in any other way."

Formal instruction in English will always be necessary, but the more good reading our pupils do, the better they know how to read, and the more strongly our teachers of geometry, Greek and chemistry are impressed with the idea that they are teachers of English as well, the less need will there be for grammar and rhetoric study, and the more nearly we shall approach the desired standard—when the power of expression of our pupils will keep pace with their mental development, and they will leave our hands able to express their ideas in language marked by clearness, force and some degree of elegance.

The English work done in most of our preparatory schools consists of more or less instruction in the fundamental principles of rhetoric, more or less practice in composition and more or less reading of literature. The results vary according to the capacity and environment of the individual pupil, according to the skill and enthusiasm of the teachers and according to the emphasis laid upon English in the particular school; but on the whole, they are satisfactory neither to the college nor to the school. They are not satisfactory because they are not as good as we can achieve. That better work can be done is proved by what is accomplished in some schools. What are the most glaring points of weakness in our results, as they appear to a secondary school master, I have indicated. How these deficiencies may be remedied, I have suggested. But there is no patent method to be applied in all cases. There is no "inductive system" warranted not to fail. What is needed is, that English shall not be lost sight of nor neglected for one moment from the beginning to the end of the school course. What is needed is patient, untiring energy, enthusiastic common sense and hearty co-operation on the part of every teacher who has to do with the boy from the day he leaves the nursery until he passes within the college walls.

Our task is no light one. We have to deal with boys as they are, as the good Lord made them, not as some of our educational theorists would like to have them; we have to struggle against inherited weaknesses, against mental incapacity, against uncultured homes, sensational newspapers and newspaper English, flashy stories and street slang. There are foes, too, in the educational household. The recent advances in the line of manual training and practical scientific work have led some over-enthusiasts to depreciate and minimize all linguistic study, even that of the mother-tongue, and we are constantly haunted and hampered in our work by the standards that are held up to us and our pupils in the college entrance examinations.

But in spite of all these handicaps we can do good work in English. We can send to college boys who will be able to comprehend language, who will be able to express their ideas with clearness and accuracy and who will have some acquaintance with the great works of English literature. More than that cannot reasonably be expected. Any high degree of literary excellence of style is not to be attained by the average boy of seventeen or eighteen; any great power of logical analysis is not to be looked for in the sub-freshman; a knowledge of historical grammar or an adequate acquaintance with the course of

English literature can not properly be expected from the preparatory student. But the ability to write clear, simple, direct English prose the school can give and, therefore, because the school can give it, the college has a right to expect and to demand it. That it does not get it, is due to two causes. The school has not waked up to the necessity and possibility of it, and the college has not insisted on it.

The schools have no desire to shirk the responsibility for the English training of their pupils. They must do the work, but it is reasonable for them to ask that the colleges shall aid them and shall do nothing to hinder their efforts. The greatest aid that the college can give to the school at present is to set entrance examinations that will serve as a standard for the teachers and a stimulus for the pupils. I hope and believe that most of us have a higher aim in our teaching than simply to prepare for examinations, but at the same time our work is largely conditioned by those examinations. With the constant pressure from parents and pupils to save time in preparing for college, with the urgent calls from Greek, Latin and mathematical teachers for more time to make up deficiencies in their departments, with the desire on our part to have the boys make a good showing in their examinations, we should be more than human if we did not sacrifice the work that was not required. And, therefore, when anything has to go by the board, it is usually English. This is only one of the ways in which our work is limited by improper entrance examinations.

Let me indicate more specifically the points in which these examinations are unsatisfactory to the schools.

In the first place the examinations in most of the colleges set a wrong standard before the schools and a standard that cannot properly be attained. The usual test in English is an essay written in the examination room on a subject taken from certain books assigned in advance. Now, I submit that as a test this is unsatisfactory, and that as a standard it is false. If it is intended to test the candidate's knowledge of the books, definite questions would do the work better; if it is intended to test his power of expression, the subject should be something simple and easily within his grasp. An essay on a subject that is frequently beyond the pupil's power of thorough comprehension, written in a crowded room, in a limited time, under the excitement of the occasion, can be no adequate test of his knowledge, of his literary appreciation or of his command of English.

And such an examination sets a wrong standard before the schools in that it leads them to devote their energies to preparing their pupils to write literary essays such as will be required in the examinations, whereas the opinion of the best teachers is almost unanimous, I believe, that such work is not adapted to preparatory students, and will not produce the best results. The present system tends to develop students able to write vague, formless, imitative, platitudinous literary essays, whereas what we want is to train boys to express their own thoughts in clear, simple, natural language.

In the second place, the standard set by the college examinations in English is not definite. We know approximately the standard for

entrance in Latin, Greek and mathematics. We do not know the standard for entrance in English. We are working in the dark as to what is desired of us. I recently asked one of the ablest and best-known of our preparatory school principals if he thought that he knew what was the standard of English for entrance to our colleges. "I do not know," said he; "and I do not believe that there is a man living who does know." We may be dull, but since we have to do the work, is it too much to ask that the standard exacted of us shall be made clear to our slow comprehension?

In the third place there is a prevalent opinion among our pupils that the entrance examinations in English are not very rigidly enforced at most colleges. They have a strong impression, based on the experience of those who have gone before, that if a boy can get through the other subjects decently, defective English will prove but a slight barrier. This is the impression, I say, among the boys, and those of their teachers who have a high regard for strict veracity are careful not to be too positive in their contradictions.

The one thing that would do the most to settle this vexed question of English, would be for the colleges to unite in saying that under no circumstances would a student be admitted to college who failed to come up to a reasonable and definite standard, and then to unite in living up to that rule.

I submit, then, that the present entrance examinations in English set up a wrong standard, and are neither definite nor rigid. Yet we appreciate the extreme difficulty of remedying these evils, and we realize that the formulating of a satisfactory requirement is no easy task. We simply urge the importance of working steadily to improve the character of the examinations, and ask that the schools may be allowed a voice in the attempt to solve the problem.

But there is one point in regard to which we find it difficult to stifle our protests, and that is the lack of uniformity in the examinations. The New England College Commission, an outgrowth of our sister association, recommends a list of books, varied from year to year, from which the subjects of the examination essays are to be drawn, and all of which are supposed to be read by the candidate. I have already stated some of the objections to the character of the examinations. There are also serious objections to the list of books recommended by the Commission. If they are to be studied, the number is too great. If they are to be read with a view to affording an acquaintance with literature, certain important, even essential, elements are lacking, and it is difficult to discover any other than an arbitrary and not always wise choice in the selection. I think that the plan is to be regarded as tentative, as a step in the right direction, and as such we hail it with reserved joy.

The significant thing is that the plan has been adopted by every New England college, except Yale, and in whole or in part by many of the leading colleges outside of New England.

Yale, after declaring for many years that no examination in English was necessary, has at last fallen into the procession, but sturdily

refuses to keep step with the band. Very wisely she makes her test of the reading by direct questions on the subject matter, but then she spoils the effect of independence by adding the usual requirement of an essay on a subject taken from one of the books.

The striking point about the Yale requirement, however, is that she flatly refuses to have anything to do with the New England list, and has promulgated one of her own. No prophet, so far as I know, has succeeded in pointing out any superiority of the Yale list over the other. Its chief point of excellence seems to be that it is so different. In fact its framers have apparently tried hard to show that they could avoid naming any books that are on the New England list for the year, although with strange forgetfulness they have included several works that have appeared on that list in previous years. 'Since Scott's "Abbot" appears on the New England list, Yale chooses "Ivanhoe;" since the former calls for Irving's "Sketch Book," Yale demands "The Alhambra;" Macaulay's "Second Essay on Lord Chatham" does not suit her any better than it does us, so she substitutes that on "Clive." If such substitutions are anything but purely arbitrary and wanton, there is need of a prophet from New Haven to enlighten us.

There is much in the character of the examination announced by Yale to call for commendation, or, at least, for careful consideration, but why that examination can not just as well be given on the books of the New England list, or on books selected from that list, passeth the comprehension of the schoolmaster.

Coming into our own district, Columbia confines itself to four books selected from the New England list—a course in favor of which much can be said. Crossing into New Jersey, Rutgers selects three from the New England list, and then spoils its record by adding three of its own choice—"Ivanhoe," "The Courtship of Miles Standish" and "Westward Ho!" Princeton strikes out on a radically different line, calling for "Henry Esmond" and Trollope's "Life of Thackeray." Lafayette distinguishes itself by the delightful announcement, which I quote: "Franklin's *Autobiography*, and Milton's *Paradise Lost*: two books to be not merely read, but studied," leaving it beautifully uncertain whether the words "two books" are intended to refer to the "Autobiography" and the whole of "Paradise Lost," or to mean that only two books of the latter are required.

A little farther up in Pennsylvania, Lehigh requires four books, only one of which is in the New England list.

Here I pause, but not from lack of material. I have gone far enough to indicate clearly the diversity, and the unreasonable diversity of entrance examinations in English. Let me give you a single example of the practical effect of this variety.

I am at present directing the English work of a class preparing to enter college next June. The class is small enough to be readily handled as a whole in its Latin, Greek and mathematical work. When it comes to English, however, I am compelled to divide it into four distinct sections, and to carry on four parallel courses, simply because the boys in that class are going to five different colleges. Then the

confusion is still further confounded by the fact that some of the boys must be prepared for an examination in formal grammar, some for an exercise in correcting false syntax, some for both and some for neither. Two reflections alone serve to lighten the gloom—one that the class is not going to divide itself among any more colleges, and the other that I am not alone in my misery, and that next year my scientific colleague will have an even worse time than I, for he will have to spread his energies and his class over the subjects of physics, chemistry, physiology and botany.

Now, I maintain that not only is there a dissipation of energy, and a waste of power on the part of the teacher, but that there is a loss to the class, and that the results attained will fall decidedly below what could be accomplished with a united class.

We recognize the difficulty of formulating a satisfactory examination in English, and we are willing to wait with resignation, if not with patience, for an adequate solution of the problem. But we see no reason why, in the meantime our work should be hampered and hindered by an arbitrary diversity of requirements. The standard desired in all the colleges is practically the same, or if it is not it ought to be. That standard can be more nearly attained by devoting our energies to preparation on one line, even if that one is not the best that can be devised.

The schoolmaster finds in his problem three troublesome factors—the pupil, the parent and the college. The pupil we are fairly capable of handling. The parent is more difficult to deal with, how difficult, no one but a schoolmaster really knows. One of the great educational needs of the day is a university extension course for parents. In the absence of that I have had serious thought of establishing a Saturday morning class for fathers and mothers. Still, we accept the parent as a necessary evil. The college factor we have no desire to eliminate from the problem, but we do think that it should at least be a constant factor, not a variable. We come to you with a specific request: Will you not establish uniform requirements in English?

We ask this not that our labors may be lightened, not that our work may be made easier; we ask it in the name and for the sake of sound education.

Discussion under the five minute rule by Professor GEO. R. CARPENTER, of Columbia College:

"I wish to give a little of my experience which has been teaching English composition. I have had nothing to do with literature. I have a good deal to do with English works. I have learned six things: First, there is very little theory that college students need in regard to rhetoric. What is needed in this you could teach a bright boy some Saturday forenoon; second, students should write frequently; third, the subjects on which students should write should be of all sorts and of all kinds; even in scientific schools a teacher can get good writings from the students; fourth, all exercises should be very promptly corrected; fifth, if possible, corrections should be made by word of mouth and not by pen; sixth, English teachers are in great danger

of being too fussy, minute points about words are too frequently discussed; college instruction takes too much time in telling students what not to do."

Professor MILTON H. TURK, of Hobart College:

"The universities have been well represented, the schools have been well represented, but no one has spoken of any small college; the college that drags about the name 'small' with it. Professor Hart represents Cornell College, I present it. At Hobart College we do some work on works in English literature. The second term we take up rhetoric, De Quincey, Macaulay, etc. I believe that a man should not study the poets till he has read their works. I also reiterate the importance of requiring English in entrance examinations to colleges."

R. B. FAIRBAIRN, St. Stephen's College:

"There have been brought up this morning evidently two subjects: The one is the study of the English language as such, and the other is the study of the literature of that language.

"The study of the language is for the purpose of acquiring the ability of expressing one's thoughts in the English language. And this consists chiefly in the form of expression and in the meaning of the words which are used. No one will need to read a sentence of Macaulay over the second time to take in its meaning. This subject has certainly this morning been discussed in a most lucid and able manner, and I rise simply to tell you a story which will illustrate the point:

"A friend of mine on a visit to Winchester College, which is one of the great public schools of England, asked the master, who after became the bishop of Salisbury, what means they took to make their scholars write such good English. The reply was, that they never required an English composition or any special study which had the English language in view. But they did take the utmost care in the translation of Latin and of Greek. They never allowed a slipshod sentence to pass. The scholar was required to put his translation into the best of English. It must be put into the English idiom; the very word which was necessary must be used. It was the daily training of scholars in transfusing the thought expressed in Greek or in Latin into a sentence which in English would express with precision and with perspicuity precisely the same meaning. In this way the real teacher of English was the professor of Latin or of Greek."

JOSIAH H. PENNIMAN, instructor in English, University of Pennsylvania, said:

"One of the severest criticisms brought against the entrance examinations of colleges is, that the requirements in English are seldom enforced as are the requirements in other branches. We demand the reading of certain Latin authors and hold a strict examination to test the results of the reading; but with reference to the English reading, most colleges are satisfied with an affirmative answer to the single question: 'Have you read the books required?' The examination is in many instances merely nominal or nearly so. No attempt is made to examine on these books, and the preparatory schools, as well as the candidates for admission to college, knowing this to be the case, do their work accordingly. If we are to expect thorough preparation in English (and of the lack of this almost every teacher of college English complains) we must hold before the schools the fact that a strict test of such preparation will be made before admission to college is granted. We must make the schools, as well as

their pupils, feel that a condition in English is just as serious as is a condition in Latin, mathematics or any other subject.

"We frequently hear criticisms of the list of books, the reading of which is usually a part of the entrance requirements in English. The chief fault pointed out is, that the wide range of subjects and the large number of authors represented in such lists are calculated to make the reading desultory or superficial. It would, for many reasons, seem desirable that a somewhat extended knowledge of fewer authors be substituted for the slight knowledge of so many. The reading of two books by the same author would be productive of cumulative results and would produce deeper and consequently more lasting impressions than would the reading of two books by different authors. It would do more to cultivate a taste for literature.

"To make my remarks as definite as possible, permit me to suggest what I think should constitute the entrance requirements in English. I quote from an article in *The School Review*, of October, 1893:

"I. A composition on some simple subject, not necessarily connected with the books read, to be written in the examination in order to show the applicant's ability to express himself clearly and correctly.

"II. Six or twelve compositions on the prescribed course of reading, prepared at school, and certified to by the last English instructor as in his opinion the unaided work of the pupil. It is probable that this requirement would do much to raise the standard of the English work done at preparatory schools, and it is recommended by the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools.

"III. A number of simple questions on the books read. The answers to these should be such as to show familiarity with the books.

"IV. It might be well to require the correction of specimens of bad English, although teachers are by no means agreed as to the utility of this as a means of teaching the writing of good English. Time may in this manner be wasted in teaching a pupil to avoid many mistakes, of which he never heard and which he would never make if his attention had not been thus called to them.

"In order to render any requirements effective, it is absolutely necessary that they be rigidly enforced. Just a word now on one other point.

"Emphasis should be laid on the ability of the candidate to express himself clearly, for every teacher of English knows the difficulty which students have in writing plain idiomatic English. They have no difficulty in speaking correctly, but writing correctly seems to them well nigh impossible. The reason is not far to seek. If a person wrote as much as he talked he would do it equally well. It is entirely a matter of practice and this shows the importance of frequent compositions upon subjects with which the student is familiar and about which he can write freely."

Professor HART:

"I wish to make it clear that we have done away with proof-reading. I regard it as a humbug. I regard the reading of eight or nine books as a very valuable adjunct to our general instruction; we do not require any literary essay. It has been my experience that a student is very weak in his vocabulary; the only way he can acquire a vocabulary is by reading. Furthermore, the seeds of culture should be implanted by reading good books. I am certain that if the schools and colleges could be brought together, a satisfactory course of reading might be adopted. I assure you that unless you give plenty of reading, you will find there is very much confusion."

Professor BIRDSALL, Friends' Central School, Philadelphia :

"For admission to college the student should be required to express himself well in English. The same should also be required of the professor in college. It has often been said, when the professor of English goes to attend the college association, there is nobody left who is teaching English. Every part of college work should be made to teach English."

President SCHURMAN :

"The schools have thrown out remarks against the colleges, and we college men cannot reply. I was surprised that the schools should call on the colleges to adopt a set of requirements for English. That is what we are here for; to enable us to adopt a standard of requirements. I have nothing to say as regards the English language; that has been well done. But little has been said about English literature. I feel that English literature is as important as any subject that can come before this Association. The sciences have their place. They do not appeal to the feelings, but only to the intellectual side of us. But there is an emotional side to our nature. Our ideal is a Greek ideal, and they studied no foreign languages. How then could they work out a liberal culture? The pabulum on which Greek minds were fed was poetry, and above all the poetry of Homer. Boys were required to commit this to memory. Now what I wish to emphasize is the importance of the English literature, which is as rich as any the world has ever known. That the students in college become thoroughly imbued with the thoughts hidden away in this great treasure-field."

President Low introduced the following resolutions which were adopted :

Resolved, That a joint committee of ten, five representing the colleges and five the preparatory schools, be appointed by the Chair in conference with the Executive Committee, to consider the present usage in the matter of entrance examinations in English language and literature in the colleges of this Association, and to present, if deemed wise, at the next annual meeting a scheme of uniform entrance requirements in English to be offered as suggestion or recommendation to the various colleges;

Resolved, That this committee have power to print, with the consent of the Executive Committee of the Association, and that they be requested to circulate their report among the members of the Association at least one month before the next meeting of the Association, and that the Executive Committee be requested to provide a place upon the program of the next meeting for the discussion of this report.

In accordance with the above the president appointed the following committee :

Professor Francis H. Stoddard (Chairman), University of the City of New York.

Professor J. M. Hart, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.

Professor G. R. Carpenter, Columbia College, New York City.

Professor Felix E. Schelling, University of Pennsylvania, Philad'a.

Professor J. W. Bright, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

Mr. Wilson Farrand, Newark Academy, Newark, N. J.

Professor Albert Smythe, Boys' Central High School, Philad'a.

Mr. E. L. Gulick, Lawrenceville School, Lawrenceville, N. J.

Mr. R. S. Keyser, Middleburg, N. Y.

Superintendent Wm. H. Maxwell, Brooklyn, N. Y.

President SCHURMAN moved that a vote of thanks be tendered to President Low and Columbia College for the gracious manner in which they have entertained the Association. Adopted by a rising vote.

Adjourned.

REPORTS OF COMMITTEES.

A meeting of the Executive Committee was held at Columbia College, New York, May 13, 1893, at which the following members were present: Professors Kiefer, Marquand, President De Garmo, and Dr. Adams. In the absence of Dr. Butler, President Low occupied the chair.

Professor Marquand moved that the following be one of the topics of discussion at the autumn meeting, namely :

SHOULD THE DEGREE OF BACHELOR OF ARTS BE CONFERRED ON STUDENTS WHO
HAVE STUDIED NEITHER GREEK NOR LATIN?

Adopted.

It was moved and seconded, that the following be a second question for discussion :

WILL ANY KIND OR AMOUNT OF INSTRUCTION IN MODERN LANGUAGES MAKE
THEM SATISFACTORY SUBSTITUTES FOR GREEK OR LATIN AS CONSTITUENTS
OF A LIBERAL EDUCATION?

Moved and seconded, that the following be a third question for discussion :

WORK IN ENGLISH IN THE COLLEGES AND PREPARATORY SCHOOLS.

It was further adopted that on each of the above topics there be two papers from the colleges and two from the schools. It was further adopted that a printed list of the schools and colleges which applied for admission should be sent to each member of the Executive Committee for his approval or disapproval.

Committee adjourned.

Meeting of the Executive Committee at Columbia College, December 1, 1893. The following members were present: Professor Butler, President Gilman, President Taylor, President De Garmo, Professor Marquand and Dr. Adams.

It was moved that the list of schools which have applied for membership be approved by the Executive Committee. Carried.

It was further moved and carried, that all applications for membership in the future be made on or before October 1 of each year.

Committee adjourned.

Meeting of the Executive Committee, held December 2, at Columbia College.

It was moved and unanimously carried, that Professor Herbert B. Adams be elected chairman of the Executive Committee for the ensuing year.

Committee adjourned.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS.

For President :

President Francis L. Patton, College of New Jersey.

For Vice-Presidents :

President J. G. Schurman, Cornell University.

Dr. S. A. Farrand, Newark Academy.

Chancellor W. J. Holland, Western University of Pennsylvania.

Professor W. Geo. Harter, Delaware College.

Professor Ira Remsen, Johns Hopkins University.

President J. C. Welling, Columbian University.

For Secretary :

Dr. John Quincy Adams, University of Pennsylvania.

For Treasurer :

Professor John B. Kiefer, Franklin and Marshall College.

For Members of the Executive Committee :

Professor Nicholas Murray Butler, Columbia College.

President Isaac Sharpless, Haverford College.

Professor Herbert B. Adams, Johns Hopkins University.

Professor J. MacBride Sterrett, Columbian University.

This report was adopted.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS,
Secretary.

TREASURER'S REPORT.

TO THE ASSOCIATION OF THE COLLEGES AND PREPARATORY SCHOOLS IN THE
MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND:

Gentlemen :—I herewith present to you my report of the treasury of your Association up to the date of the present meeting, November 30, 1893, as contained in the following abstract, and accompanying statement and vouchers.

The gross amount of receipts, \$1148.54, represents the assessments of the years 1891-92 and 1892-93, and the membership dues of 1893-94. This was brought about by the long delay in the publication of the "Proceedings" of the third convention, the prompt appearance of those of the fourth convention, and the coincident change in the Constitution, whereby a fixed annual rate of five dollars was substituted for the previous *pro rata* assessment of the expenses. *The adoption of this rate and the simultaneous amendment of the title of the Association seemed to justify a change from making collections after the Association adjourns to making them before it assembles. By pursuing this course your treasurer already has in hand the funds necessary to defray the expenses of the present convention.

Of the thirty-seven colleges and universities on the roll of the Association last year thirty-four have paid their assessments and three are yet to hear from. Of the seventy-two universities, colleges and preparatory schools now on the roll, fifty-one have paid the annual dues for 1893-94, and twenty-one have deferred payment. In addition to the amount already received, as stated below, there is therefore due to the treasury of the Association the sum of \$135.

Receipts.

Balance in the treasury, November 27, 1892	\$328 54
Assessments from fifteen colleges for 1891-92, @ \$14	210 00
Assessments from thirty-four colleges for 1892-93, @ \$10	340 00
Annual dues from fifty-one colleges and preparatory schools for 1893-94, @ \$5	255 00
Delayed payment for 1890-91	15 00
Total receipts	<u>\$1148 54</u>

Disbursements.

Expenses of the Executive Committee	\$ 14 12
Printing "Proceedings," Circulars, etc.	560 72
Total disbursements	<u>\$574 84</u>
Balance in the treasurer's hands, November 30, 1893	\$573 70

Respectfully submitted,

JOHN B. KIEFFER.

LANCASTER, Pa., November 30, 1893.

The above account has been regularly audited and found correct with vouchers, as stated.

F. H. STODDARD, W. J. HOLLAND, S. A. FARRAND,	}	<i>Auditing Committee.</i>
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CONSTITUTION
OF THE
ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND PREPARATORY SCHOOLS
IN THE MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND.

ARTICLE I.

NAME AND OBJECT.

SECTION 1. The name of this Association shall be THE ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND PREPARATORY SCHOOLS IN THE MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND.

SEC. 2. The object of the Association shall be to consider the qualifications for candidates for admission to college and the methods of admission; the character of the preparatory schools; the courses of study to be pursued in the colleges and schools, including their order, number, etc.; the relative number of required and elective studies in the various classes; the kind and character of degrees conferred; methods of organization, government, etc.; the relation of the colleges to the State and to the general educational systems of the State and country; and any and all other questions affecting the welfare of the colleges and schools, or calculated to secure their proper advancement.

ARTICLE II.

MEMBERSHIP AND VOTING.

SECTION 1. Any College, Normal or High School, or other school preparing students for college, in the Middle States and Maryland, may be received into membership in this Association upon approval of the Executive Committee.

SEC. 2. In transacting the ordinary business of the meetings of the Association all delegates present shall be entitled to vote, but on all questions requiring a decision *by ballot* each institution represented shall have but one vote.

ARTICLE III.

OFFICERS.

The officers of the Association shall be a President, one Vice-President from each State represented in the Association, a Secretary, a Treasurer, and an Executive Committee of four members, together with the President, Secretary, and Treasurer, who shall be, *ex officio*, members of the Executive Committee. These officers shall be chosen at the annual meeting, by ballot, and shall hold office for one year, or until their successors have been elected. The Executive Committee shall elect its own chairman.

ARTICLE IV.

DUTIES OF OFFICERS.

SECTION 1. The President, or in his absence the Vice-President, shall preside at all meetings of the Association, and sign all orders upon the Treasurer.

SEC. 2. The Secretary shall keep a record of all business transacted by the Association and conduct the necessary correspondence.

SEC. 3. The Treasurer shall receive and hold all moneys of the Association, and pay out the same upon a written order of the President.

SEC. 4. The Executive Committee shall prepare business for the Association, fix time and place of annual meeting, call special meetings, and act for the Association in its recess; but the acts of this Committee shall always be subject to the approval of the Association.

ARTICLE V.

MEETINGS.

There shall be one annual meeting of the Association, for the election of officers and the transaction of other business. Unless determined by the Association, the date and place of holding this meeting shall be decided by the Executive Committee, which Committee shall also have power to call special meetings of the Association.

ARTICLE VI.

EXPENSES.

To defray the expenses of holding the meetings of the Association, conducting the correspondence, printing, etc., the sum of five dollars shall be assessed upon each of the institutions represented in the Association, and any deficiency which may occur shall be provided for by special action of the Association.

ARTICLE VII.

POWER OF THE ASSOCIATION.

Decisions by the Association, of questions not pertaining to its organization, shall always be considered *advisory*, and not *mandatory*, each institution preserving its own individuality and liberty of action upon all other subjects considered.

ARTICLE VIII.

RELIGIOUS TESTS.

No religious tests shall be imposed in deciding upon membership or other privileges in this Association.

ARTICLE IX.

A QUORUM.

Representatives from one-third of the institutions belonging to the Association shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business.

ARTICLE X.

CHANGE OF THE CONSTITUTION.

This Constitution may be altered or amended at any regular meeting by a vote, by ballot, of two-thirds of the institutions represented at said meeting.

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PROCEEDINGS
OF
THE SECOND ANNUAL CONVENTION
OF
THE ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES
AND
PREPARATORY SCHOOLS
IN THE
Middle States and Maryland

HELD AT THE JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY, BALTIMORE, MD.
NOVEMBER 30 AND DECEMBER 1, 1894

Published for the Association
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1895

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May 21. 25.
George W. McCallum.
Dep.

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INSTITUTIONS ON THE ROLL OF MEMBERSHIP

OF THE

Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of Middle States and Maryland.

COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES.

INSTITUTION.	LOCATION.	PRESIDENT.
Allegheny Coll.,	Meadville, Pa.,	William H. Crawford, D. D.
Baltimore City Coll.,	Baltimore,	Francis A. Soper, A. M.
Bucknell Univ.,	Lewisburg, Pa.,	John H. Harris, D. D.
Bryn Mawr Coll.,	Bryn Mawr, Pa.,	Miss M. Carey Thomas, Ph. D.
Catholic Univ. of Am.,	Washington, D. C.,	Rt. Rev. John J. Keane, D. D., LL. D.
Colgate Univ.,	Hamilton, N. Y.,	Newton Lloyd Andrews, Ph. D., LL. D.
Columbia Coll.,	New York City,	Seth Low, LL. D.
Columbian Univ.,	Washington, D. C.,	Rev. Sam'l H. Greene, D. D.
Cornell Univ.,	Ithaca, N. Y.,	J. G. Schurman, A. M., D. Sc., LL. D.
Delaware Coll.,	Newark, Del.,	Albert N. Raub, A. M., Ph. D.
Dickinson Coll.,	Carlisle, Pa.,	George Edward Reed, D. D., LL. D.
Franklin and Marshall Coll.,	Lancaster, Pa.,	John S. Stahr, Ph. D., D. D.
Gallaudet Coll.,	Washington, D. C.,	Edward Miner Gallaudet, Ph. D., LL. D.
Georgetown Coll.,	Georgetown, D. C.,	Rev. J. Havens Richards, S. J.
Hamilton Coll.,	Clinton, N. Y.,	M. Woolsey Stryker, D. D., LL. D.
Haverford Coll.,	Haverford, Pa.,	I. Sharpless, LL. D.
Hobart Coll.,	Geneva, N. Y.,	Rev. Eliphalet Nott Potter, S. T. D., LL. D., D. C. L.
Howard Univ.,	Washington, D. C.,	J. E. Rankin, LL. D.
Johns Hopkins Univ.,	Baltimore, Md.,	Daniel C. Gilman, LL. D.
Lafayette Coll.,	Easton, Pa.,	Ethelbert D. Warfield, LL. D.
Lebanon Valley Coll.,	Annville, Pa.,	E. Benj. Bierman, Ph. D.
Lehigh Univ.,	South Bethlehem, Pa.,	Henry Coppée, M. A., LL. D.
Morgan Coll.,	Baltimore, Md.,	F. J. Wagner, A. M., D. D.
Muhlenberg Coll.,	Allentown, Pa.,	Theodore L. Seip, D. D.
Manhattan Coll.,	Grand Boulevard & 131 st., N. Y. City,	Bro. Justin, F. S. C.
Mercersburg Coll.,	Mercersburg, Pa.,	William Miner Irvine LL. D.
Penna. State Coll.,	State College, Pa.,	Geo. W. Atherton, LL. D.
Princeton Coll.,	Princeton, N. J.,	Francis L. Patton, D. D., LL. D.
Rutgers Coll.,	New Brunswick, N. J.,	Austin Scott, Ph. D., LL. D.

INSTITUTION.	LOCATION.	PRESIDENT.
St. John's Coll.,	Annapolis, Md.,	Thomas Fell, Ph. D., LL. D.
St. Lawrence Univ.,	Canton, N. Y.,	Rev. A. B. Hervey, Ph. D.
St. Stephen's Coll.,	Annandale, N. Y.,	Rev. Robert B. Fairbairn, D. D., LL. D.
Swarthmore Coll.,	Swarthmore, Pa.,	Charles DeGarmo, Ph. D.
Syracuse Univ.,	Syracuse, N. Y.,	Rev. James Roscoe Day, S. T. D.
Union Coll.,	Schenectady, N. Y.,	H. E. Webster, LL. D.
Univ. of City of N. Y.,	New York City,	Henry M. McCracken, D. D., LL. D.
Univ. of Pennsylvania,	Philadelphia,	Chas. C. Harrison.
Univ. of Rochester,	Rochester, N. Y.,	David H. Hill, LL. D.
Univ. of State of N. Y.,	Albany, N. Y.,	Sec. Melvil Dewey, M. A.
Ursinus Coll.,	Collegeville, Pa.,	Henry T. Spangler, D. D.
Vassar Coll.,	Poughkeepsie, N. Y.,	James M. Taylor, D. D., LL. D.
Washington Coll.,	Chestertown, Md.,	C. W. Reid, D. D.
Washington and Jefferson Coll.,	Washington, Pa.,	James D. Moffat, D. D.
Wells Coll.,	Aurora, N. Y.,	William E. Waters, Ph. D.
Western Univ. of Pa.,	Allegheny, Pa.,	W. J. Holland, Ph. D., D. D.
Woman's College,	Baltimore, Md.,	J. F. Goucher.
Woman's College,	Frederick, Md.,	Joseph H. Apple, A. M.

ACADEMIES AND PREPARATORY SCHOOLS.

INSTITUTION.	LOCATION.	PRINCIPAL.
Academy of the Sacred Heart,	Syracuse, N. Y.,	J. F. Mullany.
Addison Free Academy and Union Schools,	Addison, N. Y.,	D. A. Blakeslee, A. M.
Albany Academy,	Albany, N. Y.,	Henry P. Warren, L. H. D.
Albany High School,	Albany, N. Y.,	Oscar D. Robinson.
Bayonne City High School,	Bayonne City, N. J.,	M. J. B. Thomas.
Brearley School,	New York City,	J. G. Croswell, A. B.
Boys' High School,	Reading, Pa.,	M. E. Scheibner, Ph. D., Sc. D.
Blair Presbyterial Academy,	Blairstown, N. J.,	W. S. Eversole, A. M., Ph. D.
Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute,	Brooklyn, N. Y.,	David H. Cochran, Ph. D., LL. D.
Carey School, The	Baltimore, Md.,	J. A. Dunham, A. B.
Cathedral School of St. Paul's,	Garden City, L. I.,	Frederick L. Gamage, A. B., A. M.
Central High School,	Pittsburg, Pa.,	Chas. B. Wood, A. M.
Cheltenham Academy,	Ogontz, Pa.,	John C. Rice, Ph. D.
Cheltenham Hills School,	Wyncote, Pa.,	E. W. and A. Heacock.
Chapin Collegiate School,	New York City,	Henry B. Chapin, Ph. D., D. D.
Cook Academy,	Havana, N. Y.,	Roger W. Swetland, A. B.
Colgate Academy,	Hamilton, N. Y.,	Charles H. Thurber, A. M.
Collegiate School,	241 W. 77th street, New York City,	L. C. Mygatt.

INSTITUTION.	LOCATION.	PRINCIPAL.
Conference Academy,	Dover, Del.,	W. L. Gooding, Ph. D.
Curtis School, The	177 W. 73d street, New York City,	Osborn Marcus Curtis, A. B., C. E.
Cutler School, The	20 E. 50th street, New York City,	A. H. Cutler.
Dearborn-Morgan School,	Orange, N. J.,	David A. Kennedy, Ph. D.
Eastburn Academy,	700 N. Broad street, Philadelphia,	Geo. Eastburn, M. A., Ph. D.
Episcopal Academy,	Philadelphia,	William H. Klapp, A. M., M. D.
First Pennsylvania State Normal School,	Millersville, Pa.,	E. Oram Lyte, A. M., Ph. D.
Frederick Academy,	Frederick, Md.,	Lucian S. Tilton, A. B.
Friends' Central High School,	15th and Race sts., Philadelphia,	William W. Birdsall.
Friends' Elementary and High School,	Baltimore, Md.,	Eli M. Lamb.
Friends' Seminary,	Rutherford Place, New York City,	Edward A. H. Allen, C. E.
Friends' Select School,	140 N. 16th street, Philadelphia,	J. Henry Bartlett.
Friends' School,	Wilmington, Del.,	Isaac T. Johnson, A. M.
Friends' Select School,	Washington, D. C.,	Thomas W. Sidwell.
George School,	Newtown, Pa.,	Geo. L. Maris, A. M.
Germantown Academy,	Germantown, Pa.,	William Kershaw, Ph. D.
Girls' High School,	17th & Sp. Garden sts., Phila.,	J. G. Wight, Ph. D.
Harvard School,	578 Fifth Avenue, New York City,	William Freeland, A. B.
Hill School, The	Pottstown, Pa.,	John Meigs, Ph. D.
Irving School,	New York City,	Louis Dwight Ray, M. A., Ph. D.
Kingston Academy,	Kingston, N. Y.,	Henry White Callahan, Ph. D.
Lawrenceville School,	Lawrenceville, N. J.,	James C. Mackenzie, Ph. D.
Lewistown Academy,	Lewistown, Pa.,	J. C. Pla, B. S.
Geo. F. Martin's Schools for Boys,	39th and Locust sts., Philadelphia,	George Fox Martin, A. M.
Maryland State Nor- mal School,	Baltimore, Md.,	E. B. Prettyman.
McDonough School,	McDonough, Md.,	James T. Edwards, D. D., LL. D.
Milton Pub. Schools,	Milton, Pa.,	L. A. Beardsley, A. B.
Montclair Public School,	Montclair, N. J.,	Randall Spaulding, A. B.
Moravian Seminary,	Bethlehem, Pa.,	J. Max Hark, D. D.
Moravian Parochial School,	Bethlehem, Pa.,	Albert G. Rau, B. S.
J. H. Morse's School,	423 Madison Ave., New York City,	J. H. Morse, A. M.

INSTITUTION.	LOCATION.	PRINCIPAL.
Mt. Holly Academy,	Mt. Holly, N. J.,	Richard F. Loos.
Nazareth Hall,	Nazareth, Pa.,	Rev. C. C. Lanius.
Newark Academy,	Newark, N. J.,	S. A. Farrand, Ph. D.
Newark Pub. High School,	Newark, N. J.,	E. O. Hovey, Ph. D.
Oxford School for Boys, The	110 W. 79th street, L. New York City,	Kemp Prossor.
Peddle Institute,	Hightstown, N. J.,	Joseph E. Perry, Ph. D.
Rittenhouse Academy,	Chestnut and 18th sts., Phila.,	DeB. K. Ludwig, A. M. E. A. Waples, A. M.
Rutgers Prep. Academy,	New Brunswick, N. J.,	Eliot R. Payson, Ph. D.
Sachs' Collegiate Institute,	38 W. 59th street, New York City,	Julius Sachs, A. B., Ph. D.
School of Mr. F. G. Ireland,	25 W. 42d street, New York City,	F. G. Ireland, A. B., LL. B.
Smyrna High School,	Smyrna, Del.,	A. Duncan Yocum, A. M.
State Normal School,	West Chester, Pa.,	Geo. Marrio Philips, Ph. D.
State Normal School,	Bloomsburg, Pa.,	Judson Perry Welsh, A. M., Ph. D.
State Model School,	Trenton, N. J.,	James M. Green, Ph. D.
Staten Island Academy, and Latin School,	Stapleton, L. I.,	Frederick E. Partington, A. M.
Titusville High School,	Titusville, Pa.,	Laetitia M. Wilson.
Warren High School,	Warren, Pa.,	W. L. MacGowan.
West Jersey Academy,	Bridgeton, N. J.,	Phœbus W. Lyon, A. M.
Wilmington High School,	Wilmington, Del.,	A. H. Berlin, A. M.
Yonkers High School,	Yonkers, N. Y.,	Herbert H. Gadsby, Ph. D.

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ALLAN MARQUAND, Professor Princeton College, Princeton, N. J.

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ISAAC SHARPLESS, President Haverford College, Haverford, Pa.

J. MACBRIDE STERRETT, Professor Columbian University, Washington, D. C.

**Sketch of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory
Schools of the Middle States and Maryland,
From its Origin in 1887 to 1894.**

The Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland has grown so rapidly, and extended its boundaries so much beyond its original territory, that but few of its present members know its origin and history. It seems well, therefore, to give a sketch of its development.

In the winter of 1887, President Edward H. Magill, of Swarthmore College, delivered a lecture at various colleges in the State of Pennsylvania on "The Importance of a College Education for Teachers in our Public Schools."

While visiting the colleges for this purpose he consulted their presidents as to the feasibility of calling a meeting of college authorities, with the objects of establishing closer relations with one another, and procuring certain legislation in favor of educational institutions tending to this result.

Pursuant to a call issued by Presidents, T. G. Apple, of Franklin and Marshall; J. H. M. Knox, of Lafayette, and E. H. Magill, of Swarthmore College, a number of representatives of the colleges of Pennsylvania met at Harrisburg March 1, 1887. The object of this meeting, as stated in the call, was "to seek at the hands of the present legislature the passage of a new act * * * to render impossible the further taxation of any property of institutions of learning, etc." In addition to the above, which may be called the primary object of the conference, it was tacitly understood among a number of college presidents that an effort should be made to form a permanent organization. Accordingly, near the close of the first session President Magill presented the subject of organizing a permanent college association. A constitution, prepared and presented by him, was thoroughly discussed, and a committee of seven, consisting of Presidents, Magill, of Swarthmore College; Apple, of Franklin and Marshall; Ferguson, of Westminster; Knox, of Lafayette; McKnight, of Pennsylvania

College; Moffat, of Washington and Jefferson, and Seip, of Muhlenberg, was appointed to arrange for completing the organization at a meeting to be called by them at some future day.

This Committee on Organization issued a call for a meeting to be held at Franklin and Marshall College July 5, 1887. All college faculties of the State were invited to participate. Fifteen colleges responded to the call and sent delegates to the meeting. The report of the Committee on Permanent Organization was heard and the Constitution proposed by them was adopted with some amendments.

Sections 1 and 2, Article I, of this Constitution are as follows:

ARTICLE I.

NAME AND OBJECT.

SECTION 1. The name of this Association shall be **THE COLLEGE ASSOCIATION OF PENNSYLVANIA.**

SEC. 2. The object of this Association shall be to consider the qualifications for candidates for admission to the colleges and the methods of admission; the character of the preparatory schools; the courses of study to be pursued in the colleges, including their order, number, etc.; the relative number of required and elective studies in the various classes; the kind and character of degrees conferred; methods of college organization, government, etc.; the relation of the colleges to the State, and to the general educational systems of the State and country; and any and all other questions affecting the welfare of the colleges, or calculated to secure their proper advancement.

The expenses of holding the meetings of the Association, conducting the correspondence, printing, etc., were to be equally assessed upon the colleges represented in the Association.

Following the work of organization, papers were read by Dr. E. H. Magill, Dr. T. G. Apple and Dr. E. J. James.

The following are the officers of the Association for the year 1887-88: President, T. G. Apple, D.D., LL.D., Franklin and Marshall College, Lancaster, Pa.; Vice-President, E. H. Magill, LL.D., Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa.; Recording Secretary, E. S. Breidenbaugh, Sc.D., Pennsylvania College, Gettysburg, Pa.; Corresponding Secretary, J. D. Moffat, D.D., Washington and Jefferson College, Washington, Pa.; Treasurer, E. J. James, Ph.D., University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.; Executive Committee, in addition to the above officers *ex officio*; *Chairman*, T. L. Seip, D.D., Muhlenberg College, Allentown, Pa.; John Mitchell, A.M., Westminster

College, New Wilmington, Pa.; R. B. Youngman, Ph.D., Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.; E. A. Frost, A.M., Western University, Pittsburgh, Pa.

At a meeting of the Executive Committee held at the University of Pennsylvania in November following, a committee consisting of Provost William Pepper, University of Pennsylvania; President Sharpless, Haverford College; Professor Richards, Muhlenberg; Professor March, Lafayette; Professor Dubbs, Franklin and Marshall, was appointed on "Uniformity of Requirements for Admission to College," *to confer with the Committee of the Schoolmasters' Association upon this subject. This committee was also requested to confer with colleges of the Middle States and Maryland upon this subject and to invite their co-operation.*

At the second meeting of the committee held in February, 1888, at the University of Pennsylvania, the following action was taken, viz.: "A desire having been expressed by various members of the Association to have the colleges of the Middle States and Maryland meet with us at the coming annual convention, it was decided to send them invitations to be present and take part in our deliberations, with a view to the formation of a general organization of the colleges of these States."

The second annual convention was held at the University of Pennsylvania in July, 1888. At this meeting the name was changed to the "College Association of the Middle States and Maryland," and the Constitution was changed so as to make eligible to membership any college in the States included in its name.

This convention devoted much time to the discussion of "Endowments," and an able paper on this subject was read by Dr. J. G. Fitch, M.A., LL.D., of London, England.

The first annual convention of the Association, after its reorganization, was held at the University of Pennsylvania the Friday and Saturday following Thanksgiving Day, 1889. Since that time the Association has held its annual conventions on these days.

The Executive Committee, at its first meeting, recommended to circulate the minutes among the preparatory schools.

The aim of the Association has been to unite the educational interests within its territory. In order to do this most effectively it was long felt by the leading educators of these States that the colleges and preparatory schools must co-operate. Papers developing this idea were read and the subject was brought out in the discussions; *e. g.*, at the first annual convention, Professor Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia College, read a paper on "The Duty of the University to the Common Schools," and at the third annual convention, Professor George T.

Ettinger, of Muhlenberg College, read a paper on "The Relations and Duties of Colleges to their Preparatory Schools."

At this third annual convention, held at Cornell University, in 1891, several preparatory schools were represented and the question of admitting such schools to membership came up in a definite shape by the application for membership in the Association of "New York College for Training Teachers," which was referred to the Executive Committee and also the question of admitting preparatory schools to membership, and it was requested that said committee report on the same at the next convention. Accordingly, at the fourth annual convention of the Association, held at Swarthmore College, in November, 1892, Professor Magill, on behalf of the Executive Committee, recommended the following action: "That we favor such a change in our Constitution and By-Laws as shall make the body representative of all universities, colleges, normal and high schools and other schools which prepare students for college within the bounds of the Middle States and Maryland." The report was accepted and the proposed resolutions adopted, and the Executive Committee empowered to make the necessary changes in the language of the Constitution.

During the year 1892-93, forty-four preparatory schools, having been approved by the Executive Committee, were admitted to membership.

Article VI of the Constitution has been changed, so that the expenses are now paid by an annual fee of \$5 from each institution represented in the Association.

At present (January, 1894), the Association has eighty-two institutions on its roll of membership, of which thirty-eight are colleges and universities and forty-four secondary schools. Its proceedings are published annually.

The following is a list of the publications of the Association, together with the titles of the papers contained therein:

History of the Organization and the Proceedings of the First Convention of the College Association of Pennsylvania, held at Franklin and Marshall College, Lancaster, Pa., July 5 and 6, 1887. J. B. Lippincott Company, 1887.

"The Proper Relation of Colleges to the Educational Institutions of the State." President E. H. Magill, Swarthmore College.

"The Idea of a Liberal Education." Dr. T. G. Apple, Franklin and Marshall College.

* "American University." Professor E. J. James, University of Pennsylvania.

* Not published in the proceedings.

Proceedings of the Second Annual Convention of the College Association of Pennsylvania, held at the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, July 5 and 6, 1888, and its Reorganization as the College Association of the Middle States and Maryland. Globe Printing House, 1888.

- "A Collegiate Education." Professor Enoch Perrine, Bucknell University.
- "Higher Education." Provost Wm. Pepper, University of Pennsylvania.
- "Relations of the College to the University." President Magill, Swarthmore College.
- "Endowments." Dr. J. G. Fitch, London, England.
- "The Place of History in a College Course." Professor W. P. Holcomb, Swarthmore College.
- * "The Study of English." Professor Perrine.

Proceedings of the First Annual Convention of the College Association of the Middle States and Maryland, held at the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, November 29 and 30, 1889. Globe Printing House, 1890.

- "The Place of Technical Instruction in Our Colleges and Universities." President C. K. Adams, Cornell University.
- "Combination of University Training with Technical Education." President Isaac Sharpless, Haverford College.
- "Study of English Classics for Admission to College." Professor F. A. March, Lafayette College.
- "College Students who are not Candidates for a Degree." Professor Allen Marquand, Princeton College.
- "Relation of Pedagogy to the University." Professor Jerome Allen, University of the City of New York.
- * "The Duty of the University to the Common Schools." Professor Nicholas Murray Butler, Columbia College.
- "The Duty of the College to its Students." Professor Wm. A. Lamberton, University of Pennsylvania.
- "The University in Modern Life." Provost Pepper, University of Pennsylvania.
- "The Degree of A. B." Dean Edward H. Griffen, Johns Hopkins University.
- "The Value of the Bachelor's Degree." President Merrill E. Gates, Rutgers College.
- "The Fellowship System in American Colleges." Professor Henry F. Osborn, Princeton College.
- "The System of Admission by Certificate." Professor Horatio S. White, Dean of Cornell University.
- "The Philosophical Faculty in the United States." Professor Munroe Smith, Columbia College.
- "The Right Reform of Examinations." Professor J. Rendell Harris, Haverford College.

Proceedings of the Second Annual Convention of the College Association of the Middle States and Maryland, held at Princeton College, N. J., November 28 and 29, 1890. Globe Printing House, 1891.

* Not published in the proceedings.

"The Co-ordination of Colleges and Universities." President C. K. Adams, Cornell University.

"The Shortening of the College Curriculum." President D. C. Gilman, Johns Hopkins University.

Same Topic. President Francis L. Patton, Princeton College.

"The Teaching of Philosophy in American Colleges." Professor Thomas Hughes, St. Francis Xavier's College.

"The Educational Value of College Studies." Professor Simon L. Patten, University of Pennsylvania.

"University Extension." Provost William Pepper, University of Pennsylvania.

Same Topic. President Seth Low, Columbia College.

Same Topic. Commissioner W. T. Harris.

"Problems in Higher Education." President James C. Welling. Columbian University, Washington, D. C.

"The Idea and Scope of a Faculty of Philosophy." Bishop John J. Keane, Rector of the Catholic University of America.

"The Taxation of College Property." President T. L. Seip, Muhlenberg College.

"The Place of the English Bible in the College Curriculum." President George Edward Reed, Dickinson College.

"The Ideal College Education." Professor J. G. Schurman, Cornell University.

"Inductive Work in College Classes." Professor F. H. Stoddard, University of the City of New York.

"The Relation of the Colleges to the Modern Library Movement." Melvil Dewey, Secretary of the University of the State of New York.

"The Moral and Religious Oversight of Students." Dr. James McCosh, Princeton College.

Proceedings of the Third Annual Convention of the College Association of the Middle States and Maryland, held at Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y., November 27 and 28, 1891.

"The True Scope of College Discipline." Professor Jacob Cooper, Rutgers College.

"The Scope of Modern Languages in Our Colleges and the Best Methods of Teaching Them." Ex-President Magill, Swarthmore College.

"The Aim and Scope of the Study of Modern Languages and Methods of Teaching Them." Professor O. B. Super, Dickinson College.

"The English Bible—Its Study as a Classic in Our Colleges." Professor W. R. Duryee, Rutgers College.

"The College and the People: How May They be Brought into Closer Relations?" Professor George A. Harter, Delaware College.

"The Relations and Duties of Colleges to Their Preparatory Schools." Professor George T. Ettinger, Muhlenberg College.

"On Permitting Students to Take Studies in Professional Schools while Pursuing a Regular Undergraduate Course." Professor Nicholas Murray Butler, Columbia College.

"On Allowing Undergraduate Students to Study in Professional Schools." Professor C. A. Collin, Cornell University Law School.

"Athletics and Intercollegiate Games." President Thomas Fell, St. John's College, Annapolis.

"The Position of Metaphysics in a Course of Scientific Philosophy." Professor E. A. Pace, Catholic University of Washington.

"Is it Worth While to Uphold any Longer the Idea of a Liberal Education?" President D. C. Gilman, Johns Hopkins University.

"University Extension." Professor E. J. James, University of Pennsylvania.

Proceedings of the Fourth Annual Convention of the College Association of the Middle States and Maryland, held at Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa., November 25 and 26, 1892. Educational Review, Columbia College, New York.

How can High Schools be made so uniformly efficient that their graduates may, without further preparation, enter college? "The Experience of New York State," Secretary Melvil Dewey.

Same Topic. "Proposals for the Middle States." President George W. Atherton, Pennsylvania State College.

"The Best Methods of Determining and Recording the Scholarship of Students." Dean Horace Jayne, University of Pennsylvania.

Same Topic. Professor M. H. Richards, Muhlenberg College.

"How Can the Highest Educational Efficiency be Secured for English in American Colleges?" Professor Felix E. Schelling, University of Pennsylvania.

"The Relation of English Literature to Aesthetics," Professor F. A. March, Lafayette College, Pennsylvania.

"The Scope and Function of Rhetoric and Composition." Professor Charles E. Hart, Rutgers College, New Jersey.

"College Libraries: [How Best Made Available for College Uses?]" Mr. George William Harris, Librarian of Cornell University.

Same Topic. Professor J. H. Morgan, Dickinson College, Pennsylvania.

"Higher Education in the United States." President Seth Low, Columbia College.

*"Geography as a Scientific Basis for the Study of History." President D. C. Gilman, Johns Hopkins University.

"Geography as a Scientific Basis for the Study of Biology." Dr. Spencer Trotter, Swarthmore College.

"To What Extent is Student Government Available as a Means of College Discipline?" Professor Merrill E. Gates, Amherst College.

Same Topic. President James M. Taylor, Vassar College.

"The Relations Between the High School, the College and the University." Secretary Melvil Dewey, University of the State of New York.

Proceedings of the First Annual Convention of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, held at Columbia College, New York, December 1 and 2, 1893. Avil Printing Company, Philadelphia, 1894.

Should the degree of Bachelor of Arts be conferred on students who have studied neither Greek nor Latin?

* Not published in the proceedings.

Papers by Professor Andrew F. West, of Princeton College, New Jersey ; * Secretary Melvil Dewey, of the University of the State of New York ; Principal C. H. Thurber, of Colgate Academy, Hamilton, N. Y. ; Principal F. L. Gammage, of the Cathedral School, Garden City, L. I.

Discussion, under the five-minute rule, by Professor Morris Loeb, of the University of the City of New York ; Professor O. B. Super, of Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa. ; Principal James M. Green, of the State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.

Will any kind or amount of instruction in modern languages make them satisfactory substitutes for Greek or Latin as constituents of a liberal education ?

Papers by Professor H. H. Boyesen, of Columbia College, New York ; Professor H. C. G. Brandt, of Hamilton College, Clinton, N. Y. ; Dr. Julius Sachs, of the Collegiate Institute, New York ; Principal James C. MacKenzie, of the Lawrenceville School, New Jersey.

Discussion, under the five-minute rule, opened by Professor E. H. Magill, of Swarthmore College, Pennsylvania.

President's Address. Subject : " The Neglect of the Student in Recent Educational Theory." President James M. Taylor, of Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

Work in English in the Colleges and Preparatory Schools.

Papers by President James C. Welling, of Columbian University, Washington, D. C. ; Professor J. Morgan Hart, of Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y. ; Dr. Edward Brooks, Superintendent of Schools, Philadelphia, Pa. ; Mr. Wilson Farrand, of the Newark Academy, Newark, N. J.

Proceedings of the Second Annual Convention of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools in the Middle States and Maryland, held at the Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md., November 30, and December 1, 1894. Avil Printing Company, Philadelphia, 1895.

" The Place and Teaching of History and Politics in School and College."

Papers as follows :

" Is History Past Politics ?" Professor Herbert B. Adams, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.

" Ought the Sources to be used in Teaching History ?" Professor James Harvey Robinson, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.

" The Place of History in the Preparatory Schools." Principal Henry P. Warren, Albany Academy, Albany, N. Y.

" Civics in the Secondary Schools." Mr. Samuel E. Forman, Baltimore.

Discussion, under the five minute rule, by Professor Franklin H. Giddings, Columbia College, New York City ; Principal C. M. Phillips, State Normal School, West Chester, Pa. ; Mr. Glenn Mead, Episcopal Academy, Philadelphia, Pa.

Discussion of the Report on the Requirements for Entrance Examinations in English of the Committee of Ten, appointed by the Association at the last Annual Convention.

* Not published in the proceedings

- Papers by Professor Francis H. Stoddard, University of the City of New York; Professor James W. Bright, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland; Mr. Wilson Farrand, Newark Academy, Newark, N. J.; Professor Bliss Perry, Princeton College, Princeton, N. J.; Mr. Percival Chubb, Brooklyn Public Schools, Brooklyn.
- Discussion, under the five-minute rule, by Professor F. A. March, Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.; Professor John B. Van Meter, Woman's College, Baltimore; Melvil Dewey, Secretary University of the State of New York, Albany, N. Y.; Professor Nicholas Murray Butler, Columbia College, New York City.
- "The Future of the College." Papers, limited to twenty minutes each, by Mr. Talcott Williams, Philadelphia *Press*; President Isaac Sharpless, Haverford College, Pennsylvania; President E. D. Warfield, Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.; *President M. W. Stryker, Hamilton College, Clinton, N. Y.
- Discussion, under the five-minute rule, opened by Professor Edmund J. James, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia; †Principal Isaac T. Johnson, Friends' School, Wilmington, Del.

* Not published in the proceedings.

Proceedings
OF THE
Second Annual Convention
OF
**The Association of Colleges and
Preparatory Schools**
IN THE
MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND.

THE JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY,
Baltimore, Md., November 30, 1894.

The Second Annual Convention of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools in the Middle States and Maryland, was called to order by Chancellor W. J. Holland, of the Western University of Pennsylvania, one of the Vice-Presidents of the Association. President Francis L. Patton of Princeton College, President of the Association, telegraphed his inability to be present.

President Gilman of the Johns Hopkins University welcomed the delegates and this address was responded to by the chairman, Chancellor Holland.

At some time during the convention the following institutions were reported as represented by the delegates named :

ALBANY ACADEMY, THE.—Principal H. P. Warren.

ALLEGHENY COLLEGE.—President Wm. H. Crawford, J. H. Montgomery.

AMMENDALE NOV. COLLEGE.—President Brother Romnald.

BALTIMORE CITY COLLEGE.—Principal Francis A. Soper, Chas. F. Radatz.

BAYONNE CITY HIGH SCHOOL.—Principal M. J. B. Thomas.

BEACON COLLEGE.—H. H. Wood.

BLAIR PRESBYTERIAL ACADEMY.—Principal W. S. Eversole, Clara J. Eversole.

BORDENTOWN MILITARY INSTITUTE.—Principal Thompson H. Landon.

BOYS' HIGH SCHOOL, READING.—Principal M. E. Scheibner, Walter S. Harley.

BROOKLYN HEIGHTS SEMINARY.—Amy E. Johnson.

BUCKNELL UNIVERSITY.—President John H. Harris, Principal T. A. Edwards.

- CALVERT HALL COLLEGE.—President Brother Denis.
- CANAJOHARIE PUBLIC SCHOOL.—Principal and Mrs. S. McKee Smith.
- CAZENOVIA SEMINARY.—Nicholas Knight.
- CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, BINGHAMTON, N. Y.—E. R. Whitney.
- CENTRAL PA. COLLEGE.—President A. E. Gobble.
- COLGATE UNIVERSITY.—Dean N. L. Andrews.
- COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE.—Principal Julius Sachs.
- COLLEGE FOR WOMEN, ALLENTOWN, PA.—President J. N. Knappenberger.
- COLUMBIA COLLEGE.—Nicholas Murray Butler.
- COLUMBIAN UNIVERSITY.—J. MacBride Sterrett.
- CONFERENCE ACADEMY.—Principal W. L. Gooding.
- COOK ACADEMY.—Principal Roger W. Swetland.
- CORNELL UNIVERSITY.—O. F. Emerson, Chas. E. Bennett.
- DELAWARE COLLEGE.—President A. N. Raub, Geo. A. Harter.
- DICKINSON COLLEGE.—H. C. Whiting, B. O. McIntire.
- EASTBURN ACADEMY.—Associate Principal S. B. Carr.
- EPISCOPAL ACADEMY, PHILA.—Head Master Wm. H. Clapp, Glenn Mead.
- FRANKLIN AND MARSHALL COLLEGE.—President John S. Stahr, John B. Kieffer.
- FREDERICK ACADEMY.—Principal Lucian S. Tilton.
- FRIENDS' SELECT SCHOOL, WASHINGTON, D. C.—Principal Thomas W. Sidwell, Principal Mrs. Sidwell, Miss M. F. Baker, Alberta Wilson, Clarkson Wilson, H. L. Cannon, L. Edna Marshall.
- FRIENDS' SCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN, BALTIMORE.—Principal Louisa P. Blackburn.
- FRIENDS' CENTRAL SCHOOL, PHILA.—Principal Wm. W. Birdsall, Principal Annie Shoemaker.
- FRIENDS' SELECT SCHOOL, PHILA.—Superintendent J. Henry Bartlett, Anna Walton.
- FRIENDS' W. PHILA. SCHOOL.—Principal Mary J. Elliott.
- FRIENDS' ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOL, BALTIMORE.—Principal Eli M. Lamb, Caroline Roberts, Rachel E. Lamb, Sarah R. Matthews, Anna M. Berger, Lucy Sutton, M. E. Janney.
- FRIENDS' SCHOOL, WILMINGTON.—Principal Isaac T. Johnson, Associate Principal, Enos L. Doan, Louisa C. Doan, Mary J. Hoopes, Carrie J. Dummig, Wm. E. Pollison.
- FRIENDS' SEMINARY, NEW YORK.—Vice-Principal Edward P. Rawson.
- FRIENDS' SCHOOL, GERMANTOWN.—Principal Davis H. Forsythe.
- GALLAUDET COLLEGE.—Vice-President, Edward Allen Fay.
- GEORGE F. MARTIN'S SCHOOL FOR BOYS.—Principal Geo. F. Martin, Hugo McCartney, Geo. Lewis Plitt.
- GEORGE SCHOOL.—Principal Geo. L. Maris, Joseph M. Johnston.
- GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOL, PHILA.—Principal J. G. Wight.
- GIRLS' LATIN SCHOOL, BALTIMORE.—Principal W. H. Shelley.
- HAMILTON COLLEGE.—President W. Woolsey Stryker.
- HAVERFORD COLLEGE.—President Isaac Sharpless, George Vaux, Jr.
- HAVERFORD COLLEGE GRAMMAR SCHOOL.—Head Master, Charles Crossman, W. B. Cutts, F. A. Dakin.

- HOME SCHOOL, HAVERFORD.—Principal Henry N. Hoxie.
- JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.—President Daniel C. Gilman, Herbert B. Adams, Ira Remsen, James W. Bright, Dean Edward H. Griffin, Sidney Sherwood, Henry Wood, John Martin Vincent, Herbert E. Greene, T. A. Reist, Edward H. Spieker.
- LA SALLE COLLEGE.—Brother Eliphus.
- LEBANON VALLEY COLLEGE.—President E. Benj. Bierman, J. E. Lehman, O. E. Good.
- MANHATTAN COLLEGE.—President Brother Justin, Brother Chrysostom.
- MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOL, BROOKLYN.—Percival Chubb.
- MERCERSBURG COLLEGE.—President Wm. Mann Irvine.
- MILTON HIGH SCHOOL.—Superintendent L. A. Beardsley.
- MORAVIAN SEMINARY FOR YOUNG LADIES.—Principal J. Max Hark, Lawrence Breckenstein.
- MORAVIAN PAROCHIAL SCHOOL.—Superintendent Albert G. Rau.
- MORGAN COLLEGE.—President T. J. Wagner.
- MONTCLAIR HIGH SCHOOL.—Superintendent Randall Spaulding, J. Stewart Gibson.
- NAZARETH HALL, MILITARY ACADEMY.—Principal Chas. C. Lanius.
- NEWARK ACADEMY.—Head Master S. A. Farrand, Associate Master Wilson Farrand.
- NEWARK HIGH SCHOOL.—Principal E. O. Hovey, C. F. Kayser, Margaret Coult, Clara W. Greene.
- PEDDIE INSTITUTE.—President Jos. E. Perry.
- PENNSYLVANIA STATE COLLEGE.—Edwin E. Sparks.
- PITTSBURG HIGH SCHOOL.—Principal C. B. Wood.
- PRINCETON COLLEGE.—Bliss Perry.
- RITTENHOUSE ACADEMY.—Principal De Benneville K. Ludwig, Albert H. Raub.
- RUTGERS COLLEGE.—Thomas Logie.
- RUTGERS COLLEGE PREP. SCHOOL.—Head Master Eliot R. Payson.
- SMYRNA HIGH SCHOOL.—Principal A. Duncan Yocum.
- ST. JOHN'S COLLEGE.—President Thomas Fell.
- STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, MILLERSVILLE, PA.—E. Oram Lyte.
- SWARTHMORE COLLEGE.—Edward H. Magill, S. W. Lippincott, R. W. Hillborn, J. Russell Hayes, George A. Hoadley, M. A. Kemp, Ferris W. Price.
- SWARTHMORE GRAM. SCHOOL.—Principal A. H. Tomlinson.
- SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY.—Wm. G. Ward.
- TEACHERS' COLLEGE, N. Y. C.—President Walter L. Hervev, Frank T. Baker.
- UNIONVILLE ACAD., NORMAL AND INSTITUTE.—Principal J. E. W. Taneyhill.
- UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.—Vice-Provost Fullerton, Geo. F. Barker, James H. Robinson, John Q. Adams, Edward P. Cheyney, Edmund J. James, Josiah H. Penniman, Roland P. Falkner, Alfred Gudeman, Sam'l. M. Lindsay, E. W. Mumford, Herbert E. Everett.
- UNIVERSITY CITY OF NEW YORK.—Francis H. Stoddard, Edgar D. Shimer, Geo. Francis James.
- UNIVERSITY STATE OF NEW YORK.—Secretary Melvil Dewey.

- URSINUS COLLEGE.—President Henry T. Spangler, C. W. R. Crum, M. Peters.
- VASSAR COLLEGE.—Lucy M. Salmon.
- WASHINGTON COLLEGE.—President C. W. Reid, James Roy Mecor.
- WELLS COLLEGE.—President Wm. E. Waters.
- WESTERN UNIVERSITY OF PA.—Chancellor W. J. Holland.
- WESTERN MARYLAND COLLEGE.—President T. H. Lewis.
- WESTTOWN BOARDING SCHOOL.—Superintendent Zebedee Haines, Thomas K. Brown.
- WILMINGTON PUB. SCHOOLS.—Superintendent D. W. Harlan.
- WILMINGTON HIGH SCHOOL.—Principal A. H. Berlin, Assistant Principal Jane Craig, Sallie Hare, Alice Mercer, Mary C. Springer, Anita M. Lewis, Sallie A. Taylor, Eliza A. Craig, Mrs. Ella D. B. Semple.
- WILSON COLLEGE.—Miss M. F. Buffington, Miss A. Robinson.
- WOMAN'S COLLEGE OF BALTIMORE.—President John T. Goucher, Dean John B. Van Meter, Wm. H. Hopkins, Frank R. Butler, Hans Frölicher, Miss A. Van Vleck, Maynard M. Metcalf.
- WOMAN'S COLLEGE OF FREDERICK.—President J. H. Apple, Bine Holly.
- YONKERS HIGH SCHOOL.—Principal Herbert H. Gadsby.
- OTHERS PRESENT.—Evelyn M. Muirhead, London, Eng.; Thomas A. Jenkins, Jane Wetherill Bartlett, Mrs. E. J. James, Mrs. James H. Robinson, Mrs. John Q. Adams, Phila.; Mrs. Bliss Perry, Princeton; May Christian, Bloomington, Ill.
- The Convention took up the first topic on the program, viz.:

THE PLACE AND TEACHING OF HISTORY AND POLITICS IN SCHOOL AND COLLEGE.

The first paper was read by Professor HERBERT B. ADAMS, The Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, on the question:

IS HISTORY PAST POLITICS?

There have been frequent criticisms of Mr. Freeman's famous definition, "History is Past Politics, and Politics are Present History." The phrase occurs in varying forms in Mr. Freeman's writings,* and was adopted as a motto for the Johns Hopkins University Studies in the year 1882, soon after the historian's visit† to Baltimore. The motto was printed not only upon the title page of our published Studies, but also upon the wall of our old Historical Seminary. Mr. Freeman kindly wrote for us an Introduction to American Institutional History, and, by his long-continued correspondence, gave great encouragement to our work.

Ten years after his visit to Baltimore, Mr. Freeman contributed to *The Forum* a review of his opinions, saying at the

* For references, see Johns Hopkins University Studies, Vol. I, 12.
For an account of this visit, see Studies, Vol. I, 5-12.

close of his article: "It is that chance proverb of mine, which the historical students of Johns Hopkins have honored me by setting up over their library, it is by the application which I have made of it, both to the events of the remotest times and to the events which I have seen happen in the course of sixty-nine years, that I would fain have my life and my writings judged." These were probably the last words addressed to American readers by the historian of Sicily, who died at Alicante, in Spain, March 16, 1892, one month before the appearance of his last magazine article.

A brief review of Mr. Freeman's *Philosophy of History*, will serve to set our chosen motto in a clear light. He regarded Greek politics as the beginning of the world's state life. For him the Achaian League of Greek cities was the historic forerunner of the Federal Union of these United States. For him the real life of ancient history lay "not in its separation from the affairs of our own time, but in its close connection with them." (Office of the Historical Professor, 41). For him the records of Athenian archons and Roman consuls were as essential parts of the same living European history, as the records of Venetian doges and English kings. It mattered little to this large-hearted, broad-minded historian of Comparative Politics, whether he was writing of free Hellas or free England, of Magna Græcia or the United States. He wrote political articles on the Eastern Question and the Danube Provinces for the *Manchester Guardian* or *Saturday Review*, in the same spirit in which he wrote historical essays.

Mr. Freeman strongly believed that the main current of human history runs through the channel of politics. In the first published course of his lectures at Oxford, 1884-85, on "Methods of Historical Study," p. 119, he maintained that history is "the science or knowledge of man in his political character." He regarded the State as the all-comprehending form of human s . . . He used the word "political" in a large Greek sense. For him the Politeia or the Commonwealth embraced all the highest interests of man. He did not neglect the subjects of art and literature. Indeed, he began his original historical work with a study of Wells Cathedral in his own county, and throughout his busy life he never lost interest in architectural and archæological studies. For him Roman art and the Palace of Diocletian were but illustrations of Roman life and character. Civilized man lives and moves and has his being in civil society. Cathedrals, palaces,

colleges and universities are simply institutions within the State, owing their security and legal existence to State authority.

Mr. Freeman regarded present politics as history in the making. The struggles and conflicts of the present are the results of historic forces. When great problems are settled by war, legislation or diplomacy, the facts are accepted and are added to the great volume of human history. Freeman carried this view so far that he said : "The last recorded event in the newspapers is, indeed, part of the history of the world. It may be and it should be studied in a truly historic spirit." *

Such was the comprehensive philosophy of the great English master of history and politics. It has made a profound if not a permanent impress upon the minds of many young Americans. It has entered into their consciousness and into their studies of institutional history. The motto which we have chosen for our published monographs and for our Seminary wall, is a good working theory for students engaged in the investigation of laws and institutions of government. No representative of the Johns Hopkins University, however, ever maintained that all history was past politics, but only that some history is past politics, and the kind of history that we investigate is chiefly of that order. It is not out of place to observe, with Mr. Freeman's biographer, William Hunt, that "politics are the chief determining forces in a nation's life, in that they control and direct the production and application of wealth, the habits, aspirations, and to a large extent, the religion of a people, and that they are, therefore, the foundation of all sound history." (From the Proceedings of the Somerset Archaeological and Natural History Society, Vol. XXXVIII, 13.)

While politics and laws are the foundation of the upper strata of history, and while history itself is the deep and eternal substratum of politics, it is well to remember that there are some

* Professor Jesse Macy, in his paper read before the American Historical Association, at Chicago, in 1893, on the Relation of History to Politics said: "No other original source of history can be compared in importance with present politics." (See Annual Report for 1893, p. 185.) At the time of the American Civil War, Charles Kingsley, then Professor of History at Cambridge, said: "I cannot see how I can be a Professor of past Modern History without the most careful study of the history which is enacting itself around me." Accordingly he proceeded to lecture on American History. Mr. Freeman had the same historical impulse, but he preferred to begin his treatment of Federal Government with the Achaian League. He evidently intended to include the American Union in his system of "Past Politics," for upon his title page, he mentioned "the Disruption of the United States" as the final limit of his work; and he always insisted that Secession was Disruption. The Union was badly broken, but it was finally mended and preserved, and is still engaged in politics.

things in the world which are neither politics nor history. For example, individual and domestic life is neither historical nor political, unless in some important way it affects the common life of society.* Here lies the true distinction between biography and history. Froude and Carlyle were champions of the biographical idea in history-writing. In his Inaugural Address at Oxford, Froude said that the function of the historian is to discover and make visible illustrious men and pay them ungrudging honor. He strongly approved of Carlyle's saying : "The history of mankind is the history of its great men ; to find out these, clean the dirt from them, and place them on their proper pedestals, is the true function of the historian." Carlyle thought history the essence of innumerable biographies, but it may be urged that all biographies since the world began would not constitute history, unless they recognize the all-uniting element of civil society and of the common life of men in connection with human institutions. No biography is of the least historical importance unless it treats man in his social or civic relations. This Greek idea of man as a political being, of man existing in an organized community or commonwealth, is absolutely essential to a proper conception of history. Indeed, we may go further and say with Goldwin Smith : "There can be no philosophy of history until we realize the unity of the human race and that history must be studied as a whole." (Lecture on History, p. 46.) This is very different from Froude's doctrines that "What is true of a part is true of the whole," and that "History is the record of individual action," both of which statements are manifestly untrue.

Without ignoring the heroes of Froude and Carlyle, or the obscure annals of American local history, we of the Johns Hopkins University realize that the world is round and are inclined to go even further up the stream of Past Politics than did our friend and patron, Mr. Freeman. We are unwilling to

*Paul Lindau, in the *Public Ledger* [Philadelphia], November 28, 1894, calls attention to the interesting sociological fact that the Bismarckian household exhibited a type of patriarchal family life, curiously suviving in this nineteenth century. In this case domestic life becomes of historic interest. The influence of the late Princess Bismarck was indirectly and unconsciously political because of her relation to the Iron Chancellor in the days of his activity. Lindau says: "She warmed the home with the sunny simplicity of her nature, and when storms were raging wildly without, she afforded her wearied and sorely-tried husband a comfortable corner wherein to forget the excitements and trouble of the day and to take innocent pleasure in life amid the home circle, and to collect his strength for renewed efforts. In this way the Princess played indirectly a part in politics that was not unimportant, although she never sought to make her strong personal influence felt in political questions."

begin our course of historical study with old Greece or Aryan Europe. We seek the origin of more ancient cities than Athens and Sparta. We wish to know the laws and customs of the earliest races of men. We are disposed to recognize primitive man and society as worthy of a place in the study of rudimentary institutions. The village community, the patriarchal tribe, the first communal families are all worthy of historical attention. Indeed, we are not averse to the discovery of institutional germs, like marriage, and government, and economy, even in the animal world. We are accustomed to say that history begins with the stone axe and ends with the newspaper. We believe that the beginning and end of history is man in society. As Colonel William Preston Johnston well said in his paper published by the American Historical Association (1893, p. 47): "Man is the first postulate of history. He is the beginning and the end of it. He enacts it; he tells it; he accepts it as a message or gospel for guidance and self-realization. Man, mind, phenomena, memory, narrative—and history is born." Man in the State, Man as a Social Animal, Man living and moving in institutional groups, this historical conception, which is as old as Aristotle, we of the Johns Hopkins Historical Seminary regard as truly scientific and as practically modern. Its revival is due to the Renaissance of Greek and Roman politics in this nineteenth century.

Let us now inquire from what historical source Freeman derived his notion that "History is Past Politics." The historian of the Norman Conquest received his inspiration from Dr. Thomas Arnold, the father of modern studies in the schools and colleges of England. The Headmaster of Rugby not only revolutionized the public school life of our mother country in educational and moral ways, but he carried his Greek ideas of history into the University of Oxford, from which they have gone forth through England and America in one of those great intellectual movements so characteristic of modern university influence.

In his Inaugural Lecture at Oxford, in 1884, on the Office of the Historical Professor (pp. 8-9), Mr. Freeman said: "Of Arnold I learned what history is and how it should be studied. It is with a special thrill of feeling that I remember that the chair which I hold is his chair, that I venture to hope that my work in that chair may be in some sort, at whatever distance, to go on waging a strife which he began to wage. It was from him that I learned a lesson, to set forth which, in season and

out of season, I have taken as the true work of my life. It was from Arnold that I first learned the truth which ought to be the centre and life of all our historic studies, the truth of the Unity of History. If I am sent hither for any special object, it is, I hold, to proclaim that truth, but to proclaim it, not as my own thought, but as the thought of my great master."

From Arnold, more than from any other teacher or writer, Freeman learned that history is a moral lesson. In this strong conviction, Freeman in one respect at least, stands upon common ground with Froude, who said of history: "It is a voice forever sounding across the centuries the laws of right and wrong.

. . . Justice and truth alone endure and live. Injustice and falsehood may be long-lived, but doomsday comes at last to them, in French Revolutions and other terrible ways." In death the two great historians of England are now united. Their ethical views of human history are essentially the same. Freeman said of the historian of Rome, one of his predecessors at Oxford: "In every page of his story Arnold stands forth as the righteous judge, who, untaught by the more scientific historical philosophy of later days, still looked on crime as no less black because it was successful, and who could acknowledge the right even of the weak against the strong." Throughout his entire career as a publicist and as an historian, Freeman was the champion of liberty against oppression, of down-trodden Christian nationalities against the unspeakable Turk.

It was from Thomas Arnold that Freeman learned the great lesson that the history of Greece and Rome is really nearer to the modern world than are many chapters of mediæval history. In his lectures at Oxford (p. 62) Arnold has said, "what is mis-called ancient history" is "the really modern history of the civilization of Greece and Rome." He maintained that the student finds, upon classic ground, "a view of our own society, only somewhat simplified," like an introductory study. (Lectures on Modern History, p. 220.) Arnold looked on old Greece as the springtime of the world, and upon Rome as the full political development of classical ideas of State life. The world is still moving along the imperial lines laid down in Church and State by the Eternal City. Freeman regarded Rome as the source of all modern politics, the great lake from which all streams flow. In his Inaugural Lecture at Oxford (p. 10) Freeman said: "Arnold was the man who taught that the political history of the world should be read as a single whole. . . . That what, in his own words, is 'falsely called ancient history,'

is in truth the most truly modern, the most truly living, the most rich in practical lessons for every succeeding age."

Dr. Arnold conceived of ancient history as living on in present society. Modern history has preserved the elements of earlier civilizations and has added to them. (See *Lectures on Modern History*, 46.) For Arnold past politics were embryonic forms which in modern society have reached their maturity. His idea of historical politics resembles Dr. Wm. T. Harris' idea of education, which, for every well-trained scholar, should repeat the intellectual experience of his predecessors, including the Greeks and Romans, whose culture endures in our so-called liberal arts or fair humanities. Dr. Arnold once said that he wished we could have a history of present civilization written backwards. This kind of historical knowledge would certainly be welcome to practical statesmen and contemporary sociologists.

It was undoubtedly from Arnold that Freeman derived his conception of history as past politics. Arnold was thoroughly imbued with the old Greek idea of the State as an organic unity. He defined history "not simply as the biography of a society, but as the biography of a political society or commonwealth." (*Lectures*, 28.) For him the proper subject of history is the common life of men which finds its natural expression in government and civic order. He once said that the history of a nation's internal life is "the history of its institutions and of its laws." Under this latter term the Greeks included what we call institutions. The Republic and the Laws of Plato and Cicero represent the classical beginnings of modern political science.

Thomas Arnold, the editor of Thucydides and the historian of Rome, was largely influenced by his classical studies, and his own historical work was determined by the views of Barthold George Niebuhr,* who may be called the real founder of

* Arnold, in a letter to Chevalier Bunsen, thus expresses his profound indebtedness to Niebuhr for pioneer labors and critical suggestions in the field of Roman history: "I need not tell you how entirely I have fed upon Niebuhr; in fact I have done little more than put his first volume into a shape more fit for general, or, at least, for English readers, assuming his conclusions as proved, where he was obliged to give the proof in detail. I suppose he must have shared so much of human infirmity as to have fallen sometimes into error; but I confess that I do not yet know a single point on which I have ventured to differ from him; and my respect for him so increases the more I study him, that I am likely to grow even superstitious in my veneration, and to be afraid of expressing my dissent even if I believe him to be wrong. . . . Though I deeply feel my own want of knowledge, yet I know of no one in England who can help me; so little are we on a level with you in Germany in our attention to such points." (See *Stanley's Life and Correspondence of Thomas Arnold*, p. 269.)

the modern science of institutional history. Niebuhr laid little stress upon individual characters and individual action in Roman history, but great emphasis upon Roman laws, institutions, and public economy. He found significance in Roman farming and Roman land tenure as well as in Roman conquest. He was one of the first among modern scholars to recognize the importance of the historic State and its constitutional development. He lived in the period following the French Revolution, before which time men had endeavored to construct history from their own imaginations and to reconstruct society upon preconceived principles or so-called philosophy. Niebuhr based his treatment of Roman history upon actual research and careful criticism. He, too, had a moral conception of the historian's task and endeavored to bring all the lessons of old Roman courage, fortitude, energy, perseverance, and manliness to bear upon the education and regeneration of Prussia and New Germany. The foundations of the historico-political school were laid by Niebuhr, Eichhorn, Savigny, Baron vom Stein, George Pertz and Gervinus, during the period of Germanic reconstruction in Europe after the downfall of Napoleon.

The whole modern school of German and English historians was influenced by the critical and institutional methods of Niebuhr. In Germany Otfried Müller applied Niebuhr's principles to the study of Dorian tribes and Hellenic States. Boeckh turned his attention to the public economy of Athens. Curtius, the greatest living historian of old Greece, recognizes his debt to Niebuhr. Ranke, the greatest of all historians, whether ancient or modern, spoke thus warmly of Niebuhr's example: "The greatest influence upon my historical studies was exerted by Niebuhr's Roman history. It afforded a powerful stimulus in my own investigations in ancient history and it was the first German historical work which produced a profound impression upon me." ("Aus Leopold von Ranke's Lebenserinnerungen," *Deutsche Rundschau*, April, 1887, p. 60.) Ranke extended to modern and universal history the principles of historical criticism which he had learned from Niebuhr's Rome.

The subject of Ranke's Inaugural Lecture at the University of Berlin, in 1836, was "The Relation and the Difference Between History and Politics." He clearly recognized that the continuity of history appears pre-eminently in States. One generation of men succeeds another, but States and institutions live. He cited the example of Venice, whose State life

endured uninterruptedly from the decline of the Roman empire to the time of Napoleon. He recognized that nothing historic really perishes from the earth. Old institutions are merged into higher and more perfect forms. A new life appears, with a new series of historical phenomena. He, too, saw the intimate relations between past politics and present history. He said: "A knowledge of the past is imperfect without a knowledge of the present. We cannot understand the present without a knowledge of earlier times. The past and the present join hands. Neither can exist or be perfect without the other." (Ranke: *Abhandlungen und Versuche*, p. 289.)

Ranke believed in the unity and the universality of history as strongly as did Freeman himself. "History is in its very nature universal," said Ranke. His friends say that he never wrote anything but universal history. He treated individual countries, Germany, France and England, not as isolated nations, but as illustrations of world-historic ideas of religion, freedom, law and government, expressed or realized by individual European States. For Ranke as for Abelard, that master mind of the Middle Ages, the universal could be discerned in the particular. Even local* history may be treated as a part of general history. Ranke's first book, on the "History of Latin and Teutonic Peoples," was really a contribution to universal history. The last work of his life, on "Weltgeschichte," was begun at the age of ninety and was but a natural supplement and philosophical rounding-out of all that he had done before. There is, therefore, a perfect unity between the beginning and end of his lifelong task.

Ranke saw in history the resurrection and the immortality of the past. He regarded it as the historian's duty to revive and reconstruct past ages or past events from apparently dead records. In this pious labor he found the greatest joy. He once said: "He needs no pity who busies himself with these apparently dry studies, and renounces for their sake the pleasure of many joyful days. These are dead papers, it is true; but they are memorials of a life which slowly rises again before the mind's eye." Ranke is the best type of the truly scientific historian, for his principle was to tell things exactly as they occurred. He held strictly to the facts in the case. He did not attempt to preach a sermon, or point a moral, or adorn a tale, but simply to tell the truth as he understood it. He did

*A good illustration may be seen in Howell's study of Lexington in his "Three Villages."

not believe it the historian's duty to point out divine providence in human history, as Chevalier Bunsen endeavored to do; still less did Ranke proclaim with Schiller that the history of the world is the last judgment, "Die Weltgeschichte ist das Weltgericht." Without presuming to be a moral censor, Ranke endeavored to bring historic truth in all its purity before the eyes of the world and to avoid such false coloring as Sir Walter Scott and writers of the romantic school had given to the past.

The conception of history as politics survives in Germany as it does, and will do, in England and America. William Maurenbrecher, in his Inaugural Address on History and Politics, at the University of Leipzig in 1884, maintained that history relates more especially to politics, to men and peoples in civic life. While recognizing that there are other fields of historical inquiry beside the State, such as religion and the church, art and science, he urged that history proper is political history, which he calls the very flower of historical study. Without law and order and good government, there can be no art or science or culture within a given commonwealth. All the finer forces of society live and move within the limits of civil society. The bands which unite history and politics cannot be broken. History reaches its goal in politics and politics are always the resultant of history. The two subjects are related like our own past and present. The living man preserves in memory and his own constitution all that has gone before. No tendency in politics can be called good which does not take into account the historical development of a given people. Whoever will understand the political situation of any State must study its past history.

These are the views of one of the best modern academic leaders of German youth, of a man now dead, but his spirit lives in his pupils. Gustav Droysen is also dead, but his principles of historical science, translated into English by President Andrews, of Brown University, have become a *Vade Mecum* of American teachers. Droysen has, perhaps, the highest of all conceptions of history, for he calls it the self-consciousness of humanity, the Know Thyself of the living, advancing age. But he too recognizes that History is Past Politics, for he says "What is Politics to-day becomes History to-morrow."

Niebuhr's ideas of political history were transmitted to England through Arnold, Freeman, Goldwin Smith and J. R.

Seeley,* all of whom hold to the view that History is Past Politics. Niebuhr's ideas of institutional history were eagerly caught up by that enthusiastic lover of liberty, Francis Lieber, who, returning penniless from his private expedition to Greece in the time of her Revolution, lived for a time as a tutor in Niebuhr's family at Rome. By Niebuhr's advice he emigrated from reactionary Prussia, first to England and then to America. The ripened fruit of Niebuhr's teaching may be seen in Lieber's writings on Civil Liberty and Political Ethics. Lieber's ideas of liberty were widely removed from the fantastic, philosophical dreams of the eighteenth century and are based upon an historical study of English self-government. For him civil liberty meant institutional liberty.

Francis Lieber represents the first beginnings of the historico-political school in American colleges and universities, where he always maintained that history and politics belong together. In South Carolina College he taught both of these subjects, together with Say's Political Economy. In his plan for the reorganization of Columbia College in New York City, he recommended the intimate association of historical, political and economic subjects. When he was called to Columbia College from Columbia, S. C., in 1857, the following branches of the tree of knowledge were assigned to the new professor: Modern History, Political Science, International Law, Civil Law and Common Law. This was about as comprehensive a scheme of instruction as that projected in the "University of Michigania" in 1817, when a Scotch Presbyterian minister, John Monteith, was given six professorships, in addition to the presidency, and when Gabriel Richard, the Roman Catholic Bishop of Michigan Territory, was allowed the six remaining chairs in the faculty! But Francis Lieber was right in his large conception of a new School of History, Politics and Law, as a desirable unit in academic administration. Modern Columbia, under the influence, first of Professor John W. Burgess, and now of President Low, has discovered the ways and means of developing a great School of Political Science,

* Professor J. R. Seeley, in his "Expansion of England," pp. 1, 166, thus states his practical and political views of history:

"It is a favorite maxim of mine, that history, while it should be scientific in its method, should pursue a practical object. That is, it should not only gratify the reader's curiosity but modify his view of the present and his forecast of the future.

"Politics and History are only different aspects of the same study. . . . Politics are vulgar when they are not liberalized by history; and history fades into mere literature when it loses sight of its relation to practical politics."

in which Economics, History and Sociology find their proper place, all in perfect harmony with the interests of a special faculty of law.

In the reorganization of the departments of History, Politics and Economics at Cornell, Harvard, Michigan and Wisconsin Universities, these subjects have been intimately associated. At the Johns Hopkins University, from the beginning in 1876, they have never been divided. They are still harmoniously grouped together, both on the graduate and undergraduate sides of instruction, for greater educational efficiency and for department unity. History, politics and economics,—these, together with historical jurisprudence, form the chief elements of our system of graduate study in the three years' course for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. We shall doubtless retain our motto, "History is Past Politics and Politics are Present History," as a convenient symbol of the essential unity of all political and historical science, and as a pleasant souvenir of Mr. Freeman.

In the attempts of college and university men to deal with present problems of political, social, and educational science, we must all stand together upon the firm ground of historical experience. Mere theories and speculations are unprofitable, whether in the domain of pedagogics, sociology, finance or governmental reform. In the improvement of the existing social order, what the world needs is historical enlightenment and political and social progress along existing institutional lines. We must preserve the continuity of our past life in the State which will doubtless grow like knowledge from more to more.

Frederic Harrison, in an essay maintaining that "The Present is ruled by the Past," well says: "The first want of our time is the spread amongst the intelligent body of our people of solid materials to form political and social opinion. To stimulate an interest in history seems to me the only means of giving a fresh meaning to popular education, and a higher intelligence to popular opinion." He asks us what is this unseen power, this everlasting force, which controls society? "It is the past. It is the accumulated wills and works of all mankind around us and before us. It is civilization. It is the power which to understand is strength, to repudiate which is weakness. Let us not think that there can be any real progress made which is not based on a sound knowledge of the living institutions and the active wants of mankind. . . . Nothing

but a thorough knowledge of the social system, based upon a regular study of its growth, can give us the power we require to affect it. For this end we need one thing above all—we need history, hence its pre-eminent worth in social education.”

The following paper on: “Ought the Sources to be Used in Teaching History?” by Professor JAMES HARVEY ROBINSON, University of Pennsylvania.

The standard of instruction in the subjects taught in our colleges and secondary schools is constantly rising. Greater specialization upon the part of teachers, longer and more careful preparation, with the growing inclination to spend some time in study abroad, has produced many changes in the last two or three decades. The increase of scholarship has resulted in a natural and salutary discontent with the older aims and methods of instruction, nor is this movement of reform confined to a single subject or class of subjects. The same tendency to discard the older text-books is seen in the newer subjects of instruction like chemistry, physics, zoölogy, and botany, as in those studies which from time immemorial have had a place in our *curricula*. An examination of the hand-books of thirty or forty years ago shows how considerable has been the change in the aim of instruction in the natural sciences. The analysis and study of types have replaced the older desultory examination of peculiar individual instances. The interest has been steadily deflected from the particular to the general. Our study of zoölogy begins with the dissection of an oyster or a cray-fish, typical of the basal structure of all animals. We may never learn anything of the tapir, the peba or the frilled lizard. In chemistry the general laws of chemical combination are emphasized, even if the student never amuses himself by pouring aqua ammonia into a solution of blue vitriol in order to produce a fine blue color nor even witnesses the remarkable effect of dropping a piece of metallic potassium, the size of a pea, upon the surface of a saucer of water.

The beginnings of a similar change are preceptible in the conception entertained of the aims of historical study. But great vagueness still prevails regarding the precise objects toward which instruction in history should be directed and there is a consequent uncertainty as to the proper methods to be employed. Aim and method are closely related. We naturally adapt our means to the end we have in view. The question shall the sources be employed in teaching history is not

simply a question of method, but involves a more fundamental problem, namely, that of the real intent of historical study. I regret that it is necessary to take up this broader question as it cannot be satisfactorily discussed in a brief form. Fortunately, an exhaustive analysis of the aims of historical instruction is unnecessary here although it will be readily admitted that the general question will continue to force itself upon thoughtful teachers for some time to come.

In determining just what aspects of a great subject like physics, chemistry, literature or history, should be presented to the student, we are forced to select. The immature mind can grasp new ideas but slowly and time is limited. We are forced to choose carefully those things from the vast number at our disposal in any one of the great fields of intellectual activity, which will produce the best results in the relatively brief period assigned in the schools to each subject. In this world, as Tolstoi has so truly said, it is a matter of choosing not between the good and the bad, but between the better and the best. We can not have *all* but only a *part*. In history we find an especially good example of the necessity of discrimination, for its limits are more extensive than those of any other subject taught. In no other, perhaps, is the temptation so great to emphasize the unimportant and sacrifice the essential. More careful training and a fuller knowledge on the part of the teacher will quite certainly modify the perspective in history as has already happened in the natural sciences. The common attempt, for example, to cover the whole field of human history, while by no means profitless, will, it may be anticipated, be abandoned simply because the more intelligent and attractive study of the great epochs of history will come to be recognized as more advantageous, just as the properly guided dissection of a typical flower or animal may be more instructive than the superficial observation of the whole range of vegetable and animal life.

Teachers of literature do not now attempt to give courses in general literature, although Frederick von Schlegel was accustomed, about the year 1812 to lecture in the University of Vienna upon the history of literature from Homer to Fichte including the Gothic, and Mediæval literatures, Chaucer, Spenser, Descartes and all the rest. Impracticable as this may seem, the task of the teacher of general history is vastly more complicated and the results obtained by this method are correspondingly small.

One of the chief advantages of the more intensive study of shorter typical periods is the opportunity afforded of introducing a new and essential element into our instruction in history. It renders possible some training in the interpretation and criticism of written records. At present even our universities, with the exception, perhaps, of the law schools, afford little or no opportunity for the student to acquire the elements of criticism in this most important field. Yet he has daily need to exercise his faculties of discrimination. Hitherto the public has not asked where the authors whom they read obtained their information. They regard with unruffled complacency the accounts furnished by the newspapers and hastily compiled manuals or the altogether impossible picture of Napoleon's mother rocking the cradle of her ill-tempered son. In no case does it occur to the untrained mind to demand credentials. The potency of the written word is too great. Everything printed, by a kind of hypnotic fascination, appears plenary inspired. A recent book on France whose author frankly admits in the preface that she has forgotten where she obtained her information but remembers that it was mainly in newspapers and periodicals, is treated with much the same deference as the works of Ranke, John Richard Green or Stubbs. Publishers recognize how little the reader ordinarily cares for proofs of the authenticity of what he reads. They are afraid of foot-notes and references which, they argue, impair the attractiveness of a book. It is, perhaps, an encouraging indication that M. Sabatier in his excellent and popular "Life of St. Francis," a book which has reached the eleventh edition in French and has been translated into English, prefaces his work by a long scholarly discussion of the sources.

The want of critical spirit in the public can best be met by our institutions of learning. It will be readily admitted that the task of instruction in this field devolves most naturally upon the teachers of history. History is built almost exclusively upon written records. The student of history deals primarily with books and the evidence of the written word.

Perhaps just here a possible misapprehension should be guarded against. The term "sources" must not be restricted to manuscript or archival materials, but in the sense here used it embraces the greatest variety of perfectly accessible books which are frequently much more attractive than the most brilliant accounts based upon them. This being the case, ought not some discussion of the technique of history to form a

part of our instruction, at least in the colleges and high schools? Can we afford to encourage the spirit of blind acceptance when discrimination is so essential amidst the ever increasing mass of literature which is submitted to us yearly and monthly? No one can feel the necessity of such critical and bibliographical training more than the teacher who has attempted to make this a part of his mission. The utter helplessness of a class of juniors or seniors when required to report upon a purely bibliographical topic is bewildering. The conception of material and sources, primary and secondary, is often pretty nearly absent in men otherwise well trained. Repeated and detailed explanation is necessary in order that the student may even understand what is meant by indicating the available sources for the Trial of Huss or the Flight to Varennes. It is not that the facilities for elementary work at least are wanting, for even small libraries contain some scientific historical works which give the required data in foot-notes and appendices. The difficulty is that the student has never been trained to look for them.

The student can only learn to judge books by practical experience with them. I do not mean by writing compositions and theses when presentation is likely to take precedence of substance, but by real study of single documents. Let the student be brought face to face with, let us say, the French Declaration of the Rights of Man, of 1789. He will nine times out of ten fail to see why the document was drawn up in spite of the explicit statement given in the preamble. His mind has not been trained to make the most elementary inferences for itself. History has been taught as mathematics might be, were all the problems solved for the pupil. An unquestioning receptivity and a good memory have been the sole requirements for the best work expected. A healthful skepticism ought, upon the contrary, to be aroused in the student's mind. He must learn suspicion, which is the father of discrimination. He ought to be made to realize how rare good books are and to learn those signs by which good conscientious work can generally be recognized. These ends alone would be a sufficient reason for some discussion in our teaching, of the sources of our information.

Other advantages would result incidentally from a moderate and judicious use of illustrative historical sources. History suffers from a want of palpableness in the objects dealt with. Many essential ideas are abstract and foreign. Second-hand

explanation usually fails by reason of its want of *vividness*. This difficulty can be often met by reference to the experience of eye-witnesses, as they have recorded it. Letters, speeches and memoirs can be employed judiciously—a sermon or tract of Wyclif or pamphlet of Luther, tell more of the Reformation than many a volume. Who can read the Baron of Marbot's account of the Siege of Genoa, without feeling the horrors of war as perhaps he never did before in this peaceful land of ours. Pasquier's vivid account of his father's relief upon getting into prison during the Reign of Terror in France, and so escaping the constant anxiety of concealment and flight, is worth many pages of second-hand description. Any number of similar illustrations will occur to you. Can any picture of the intellectual state of the Middle Ages compare with some pages in the works of the Venerable Bede or one or two of the naive tales of the *Gesta Romanorum*.

With this increase of vividness in the presentation of important points, a new interest in the whole subject would be aroused. The student would no longer feel that the subject was an esoteric one, but that he had been taken into the confidence of the teacher and of the authors whom he reads. He would feel with Correggio, "*ed io anche son pittore*," "I too am an artist."

Of the natural objections which will be urged against the plan here suggested, two, at least, deserve attention. First, it will be said that there is no time for this kind of work; secondly, that the historical sources are costly and inaccessible. A third objection, the most disheartening of all, is that the teachers are but rarely fitted to go outside the text-book. It ought to be kept in mind, however, that the method under discussion is not likely to be introduced except in the colleges and in the high schools during the last two years, perhaps, and that the teachers are preparing themselves more carefully each year. In any case, we ought not to hesitate to formulate better methods, even if they cannot be put into immediate general practice.

To revert to the first objection, the want of time, it will be noticed that this really depends upon the conception we entertain of the objects of historical instruction. There is obviously time enough for what ought to be taught. If the skeleton of general history is the object to be attained, there is certainly no time for referring to the sources. The construction of the skeleton will occupy the whole and undivided attention of

teacher and pupil, and perhaps will still be an ill-articulated mass of dry bones to the end of the chapter.

The fundamental objection to the attempt to teach general history is the failure on the part of the pupil to grasp the meaning of the *terms*, as we may call them, of historical discussion. I find that several lectures are necessary with even the most advanced classes to furnish them with the essential preliminary ideas of a perfectly elementary character, necessary in order to take up the history of the Reformation with any degree of intelligence. We are confronted by a variety of similar obstacles in our teaching. The political map of Europe requires much attention and no good and permanent results are possible without some idea of the older political divisions. How are we to deal with the Empire, with the Feudal System, Humanism, Absolute Monarchy and a score of other necessary terms? None of these do the students know by the light of nature, and yet what is history without them? Are not the results of instruction in general history relatively small and unsatisfactory? This is all that need be admitted in order to justify its abandonment.

One writer has attempted to present the chief points of universal history in the form of extracts from the sources. While a promising innovation, this does not accomplish the most important object which a study of the sources should produce. Although many facts are made vivid and interesting, the main purpose of introducing some study of illustrative sources is the training of the judgment and of the critical powers by a careful and intensive examination of the written records. This requirement, the book above referred to, which Mrs. Sheldon Barnes has compiled with so much thought, will scarcely meet.

The second objection above mentioned related to the supposed inaccessibility of the necessary material for the use of teacher and students. This is, however, a misapprehension, since sufficient material may be easily had by a little search. In American and modern English history in addition to the well-known documents, speeches, correspondence, etc., we have two excellent series of reprints which can be put into the hands of the individual students, those edited by Professors Hart and Channing and the old South Leaflets. An ever-increasing number of translations render good examples of the European sources accessible. Several have been mentioned. Others might be enumerated, from Plutarch's Lives to the Memoires of Napoleon's Generals. Henderson's Select Historical

Documents of the Middle Ages contain a fund of interesting matter, and the historical department of the University of Pennsylvania has begun the publication of illustrative documents relating to European history, especially designed for use in the class-room.

One important factor, to sum up, has been neglected in our historical instruction, namely, the cultivation of the critical faculties of the student. The healthful skepticism which discrimination presupposes has been checked by purely ex-cathedra presentation. The time necessary for cultivating the student's judgment will be obtained by restricting his studies to limited representative epochs. In this we are following the general trend of education as is apparent in the teaching of the natural sciences. We should aim to prepare the student to study all branches of history, and to enable him to make a rational selection of books rather than to furnish him with mere ill-understood facts.

Careful thinkers declare that the awakening of the consciousness that man changes, "*Die erweckung des Gefühls für die veränderung menschlichen Daseins*," is perhaps the chief task of historical instruction. This is but an example of many essential seminal ideas sacrificed by the older methods, which fail to furnish anything like a complete compensation in giving the student a few names and dates, even if these are occasionally useful to him.

Supplementing in a moderate way the ordinary methods of instruction by a judicious reference to the sources, will enhance the value of our work by cultivating habits of thought and discrimination, which will not only aid the student in his historical studies, but will exercise a wide reaching and salutary influence upon his whole attitude toward the great world of books.

Principal Henry P. Warren, Albany Academy, read the following paper on "The Place of History in the Preparatory Schools:"

The indifference of our people to history in the past is explained by the accident of our isolation, the simplicity of our social, political and religious problems, and to the struggle for existence from which we are emerging. We have let the sunshine into the forest, plowed the malaria out of the prairie, made the turbulent rivers docile servants, gridironed the country with railroads and so have earned leisure. Steam, electricity and a fecund press have linked us to the world and

we want to understand the strangely complex civilization which meets us in literature, faces us in art galleries, puzzles us in cathedrals, castles, and crumbling ruins, and surprises us by strange customs and still stranger beliefs.

The community—the solidarity of the race, the dream of every inspired poet, blindly sought after by pagan philosophers and taught by the Christ, causes every fact in the life of man which makes for the higher civilization to be of surpassing interest. Especially is this true of the story of the genesis of civilization. Fancy a geologist ignorant of mineralogy! Fancy a man interested in the life of to-day who has never been thrilled by the beauty of Greek civilization or awed by the commanding genius of Rome!

We are oppressed too by obscure political and religious problems whose meaning is revealed by turning upon them the light of history. The average man cannot use logical processes but he knows even from his limited experience that history repeats itself. The most convincing argument in 1868 against a currency based upon a promise was the misery wrought by the continental currency.

The historical argument is the popular argument and is tremendously effective when fairly used.

Again, literature is saturated with history or mythology, which is *broken-down* history. The mythology of Greece, Rome and Scandinavia, the legends and narratives of the Old Testament, the wise thoughts and great deeds of the men of ancient and modern times on the pictorial side of literature. They furnish countless similes or metaphors, which are to language what the check is to business. The *cunning* of Ulysses, the *wisdom* of Solomon, the *statesmanship* of Webster, the *shrewdness* of Lincoln, the *magnanimity* of Washington, the *decisiveness* of Waterloo, are some of the metaphors in daily use. Often the facts of history are the warp through which runs the thread of fiction or poetry, as in the historical novel or epic poem.

History is the universal study. It is as objective as science, as subjective as pure literature. It touches life on all sides—social, material, political, intellectual and religious. In its lower forms of genealogy and local or mythic history, it is the most stimulating recreation of the peasant. Fancy an Arab tent, Highland hut, or Vermont cottage, without its Aladdin, Wallace or Ethan Allen. Men of a higher intellectual type find unfailing recreation in its pictures of social, material and

martial life, and homely lessons in its ethical teaching ; while the student, grappling with its more profound meaning, finds in the historic argument the proof that satisfies, where the logical argument leaves many a doubt.

The latter lives in a larger and older world, illuminated by brave deeds and heroic lives. The Champlain valley is to one traveler a fair succession of fertile farms, awkwardly separated by an attenuated lake ; to another it is Nature's highway between Canada and New York ; to a third it is a kaleidoscopic picture in which is strangely interwoven the fierce Mohawk, stolid Dutch trader, high-bred Siegneur, contented Habitan, reckless Courier du Bois, and shrewd Yankee ; to a fourth it is the Gettysburg of America, where French gallantly went down, but with colors flying, before English steadiness. The world is as devoid of real life, as prosaic as a Chicago stock-yard, if the story of man's achievements do not freshen each valley and tinge each hill-side.

Nature or God teaches ethics for the most part objectively, through example. We so persistently undervalue the God-like in our contemporaries that the heroic men and women of history must be the media of this instruction. Purity, bravery, patriotism, mercy, in short all the virtues come to the child in their most winning forms when seen in the heroes and heroines of history. Lust, cowardice, treason, relentless hate, *all* the devilish qualities are never so disgusting as when revealed in action. Science teaches the primal virtue,—honesty, and that alone. History teaches that, and all the virtues and graces besides. In this cynical age it is a delight to introduce boys to men who lived grandly, perhaps died heroically. It is just as necessary to sober them by the sad story of men who bartered their manhood for a mess of pottage. Do you say that such teaching will make children hero-worshippers? God made us all hero-worshippers. Though man, you and I and all men must look up to man's God. The child must feel, as well as know truth, and true ideality is wholesome feeling.

I have thus briefly outlined the reasons for the study of history ; before I discuss the development of the subject, may I state the scope of preparatory work ? It includes the period of acquisition, then comes philosophizing, or the study of cause and effect. It commences with the kindergarten, and if a college, student hungry, fills its Freshman class with ignorant, callow boys, it may include half the course of that institution. The child is ready for history in the form of

mythology at a very early age. Elves, fairies, brownies, in short, every fanciful creation are his natural companions. If he is not supplied with them he creates them, and he creates them the better by being supplied with them. He craves them as he does sweets, but rarely craves them later until he studies them as a part of folk-lore. The child can live in dreamland but once, then let fairyland and fairyfolk be real and beautiful, and let the monsters be gruesome if you will that the beautiful be still more real. But some one says, "Is this a part of education?" Take Greek, Roman and Norse mythology from literature, and it would look like the *Century Magazine*, containing Kennan's articles, after passing under the smooching iron of a Russian censor. To lose this out of one's boy life is like growing to manhood and never knowing a grandfather's home, with its mysterious portraits, haunted rooms, and attics stored with letters books and furniture, redolent of the childhood of the family to which you belong.

But it is not mythology only that I would give him at a tender age. The great men, the marked men of history, interest him, especially the men of blood and iron. Take him through the long galleries where hang the portraits of heroes, martyrs and saints and be not surprised if David the slayer of Goliath interests him more than David the penitent sinner. Then, too, the mighty works of man's hands, the Pyramids, Colossi, Hanging Gardens, Cathedrals, Temples and Castles interest him, for next to great discoverers, explorers, soldiers, he admires great builders.

The child has never been introduced to the world. His appetite is whetted to learn more, and through books and pictures, he peoples this world (though with somewhat reckless disregard of synchronic accuracy) with the demigods of mythology, and the heroes of more recent periods. The conversations at home, the allusions in sermons and lectures, and above all *wholesome* books interest him; not those *stuffed* books scissored by men whose travels are limited by the walk from library to the publishing house. Is not this early sending of hungry boys to wholesome books the answer to the vexed question, "How shall I induce my boy to read?" This is the age of bicycles, foot-ball and leisure. Saturate the boy with the life of the past before he joins the athletic crowd and he cannot become wholly absorbed by sport. He is now building the framework of history, he will clothe it later.

The boy is now ready to *study* history. He should begin with the story of America, not of the United States, for the unity of history should never be broken, and our Colonial History without Spanish and French Colonial History loses half its meaning. He will enjoy the story of material, social and martial life and some phases of religious and political life. The *study* of the latter should be reserved for a later period, for the prejudices formed in youth are unconquerable. The long and brilliant story of French exploration, trading, settlement, and combat with the Iroquois and English, the dramatic but dark picture of Spanish aggression and cruelty, the pioneer life of English and Dutch colonists, the bloody wars which made us a nation, can be made as real to him as they are to you. The political contests of our constitutional period he will, as a rule, vaguely grasp, but he is intensely interested in great inventions like the cotton gin and reaper as well as in the life of the colonial period and the first quarter of the century, when every village was a hive of industry and intercommunication was picturesque if slow. Make him as intimate with the personality of great Americans as he is with his father's friends, for your boy must live somewhere. He cannot play all the time ; he cannot study all the time. Let him live with the immortals in the world of the imagination. The study of the essentials of English History, certainly before the Revolution, should advance—*pari passu*—with the study of American History. To ignore English History is like writing the story of your family and leave out every branch but your own. The critical study of English History I would leave to a much later date.

The boy has now become familiar with the essential facts in the history of his own country and in a general way with that of the mother country, what next? I would introduce him to the civilization which flourished in the childhood of the race on the banks of the Tigris and Euphrates, along the Nile, and about the Mediterranean. The Alleghanies may be the dead-line beyond which the admirers of the old civilizations walk with halting steps, but surely I need not show *you* that a boy should be introduced very early to the cradle of the races, to that mysterious valley where God walked and talked with man, when man built not palaces and hanging gardens merely, but libraries, studied the mysteries of the heavens, wrought in metals with wonderful skill, built up a vast inland traffic, and lent to Egypt the wisdom which has made that country the despair of the archæologist. What essential fact is there in

Greek or Roman history which is beyond the grasp of a bright boy of twelve? The grandeur and beauty of their architecture, their games and festivals, religious rites and smokeless battles, their plain, pithy speeches in council and exquisite poems, their lives so simple compared with the complex living of to-day, all make a civilization so easy to understand that a boy is more at home in Athens at twelve than in London at sixteen. Introduce him to these peoples at an early age and every sentence that he translates in Nepos, Cæsar, Virgil or Cicero is like a conversation with or about an old friend. It is unreasonable to expect that a boy indifferent to contemporary history and blindly ignorant of the past, will become interested in a far-away people through the medium of translation of a military report or by the study of orations, bristling with invective. The average boy must be led up to the study of Latin and Greek by first getting in touch with the Latins and Greeks.

I would then introduce the boy to French history because France was the heir-at-law of the language, laws and general civilization of Rome. For a thousand years after the downfall of the Roman Empire she was the centre of Europe. She developed first a strong central government; feudalism followed and she crushed it; she fathered the crusades, established absolutism and crushed it, and is the only first-class power in Europe to-day where privilege is unknown. Every political question that agitates Europe has had its battle ground in France. The sympathetic quality of the French people, as Guyot so cleverly says, has made her until recent years the political leader of Europe. The history of France is the history of continental Europe from the sixth to the nineteenth centuries.

The boy has now a general acquaintance with the history of the world. He is prepared to take up the critical study of the history of his own country and the mother-country. Stress should now be placed upon their religious and political history, and the literature of the language from the time of the great awakening in the fifteenth century to the present time; he is presumably familiar with their social, material and martial history during the colonial periods.

The critical study of Latin and Greek history are a part of the last year's work in the study of those languages; like the sharp review of the grammar which belongs to that year it is a part of each recitation and the theme of innumerable short conversations.

The student has now acquired familiarity with the essential facts of history ; he is ready for the philosophy of history ; this is the province of the university.

Mr. Samuel E. Forman, Baltimore, then read a paper on "Civics in the Secondary Schools."

Along with the development of the idea of self-government among nations we find a corresponding development of the idea of universal education. With each extension of the suffrage there has been an extension of government aid to schools. It seems to be an axiom of statesmanship that the success of popular institutions depends upon the enlightenment of the populace. "We must educate," said Webster, "or we must perish."

At first the education provided by the State consisted of the rudiments of knowledge merely. The three R's were deemed sufficient to meet all the requirements of citizenship. With the higher education of its citizens the State was not concerned. But gradually this doctrine was abandoned. In the onward march of things the high school came to be regarded as a necessary feature of a public school system and to-day the hands of the educational clock are moving toward a State college and a State university. Thus it has come to pass that the State undertakes to furnish instruction in almost all kinds of knowledge, low and high, cultural and technical, useful and useless. What the public schools *may* teach is no longer the problem. The great problem that faces education to-day is to select from the ever-lengthening list of subjects that may be taught the subjects that it is wisest to teach.

In making out a table of educational values for use in public schools, we should constantly revert to the original purpose of the State in supporting these schools. That purpose is to preserve in the body politic a quality of citizenship that cannot exist among an ignorant people. If a beneficial reaction of intelligence upon political life were not discursable, it is doubtful whether the State would have anything to do with education. Since a higher grade of citizenship then, is the end and aim of public instruction, anything that tends to further the cause of good citizenship should receive the instant and earnest support of teachers. In the secondary schools of the United States there are probably 500,000 pupils. In the upper grades of the grammar schools there are about 500,000 more who are capable of receiving systematic instruction in the

subject of civil government. Teachers are therefore in direct touch with about a million of minds that can be brought to think with tolerable clearness and with some fullness of knowledge upon political matters. According to the report of the Committee of Ten civics is taught to hardly more than a fifth of this number. A vast majority of our million of capables, therefore, leave school ignorant of the principles and workings of government. This omission of the schools to render a service so important—a service which it is their peculiar duty to perform—is a great national loss. The infusion into the body of voters each year of several hundreds of thousands (in each decade of several millions) of young men inspired with intelligent patriotism and indoctrinated in sound principles of government would almost certainly in good time give a higher tone to our political life.

It would give a higher tone provided the teacher of civics recognized one fact. If he failed to recognize that fact it is questionable whether his teaching would result in any pronounced good. The thing that must be remembered in the teaching of civics is this: *The end to be attained by the study is ethical rather than educational.* As a means of mental discipline civil government is of low value. Viewed from the standpoint of its influence upon citizenship, it is extremely doubtful whether a mere knowledge of the facts of the subject will go far toward making good citizens. Knowledge is sometimes very little better than ignorance. In giving a boy a thorough acquaintance with the facts of government we may be preparing him for good citizenship or we may be fitting him for a successful career of public roguery. All depends upon the ethical twist we give to the instruction. Matthew Arnold has defined religion as morality touched by emotion. We may adapt the formula and say that good citizenship is patriotism touched by morality. Citizenship is a matter of conduct, of morals, and the teacher of civics must be profoundly conscious of this fact if his teaching is not to be in vain.

Approached from its ethical side civil government may be made a most efficient instrument in preparing boys for a higher public morality, and in all schools where pupils are sufficiently mature teachers should eagerly seize the opportunity of teaching it. Whatever we may think about the introduction of civics into the grammar school, we are all agreed that it is a proper subject for the secondary school. There it deserves a distinct and honorable place. The Committee of Ten have

recommended that it be taught in conjunction with history. This recommendation is not fortunate for civil government. Experience has shown that things that are taught in conjunction with other things are generally not taught at all. The attempt was made to teach spelling in conjunction with other things. The spelling book was thrown out of the window. The result was so lamentable that the spelling book was soon restored to its former place of honor. Civil government, to be sure, is most intimately related to history. So is geography most intimately related to history. Should history for these reasons be made a sumpter-mule and laden with civil government in one pack and geography in the other? The "all in all" theory will most likely expire with the century in which it was born. Civil government is worthy of a place by itself, worthy of having a liberal block of time and effort assigned to it in its own right.

Having decided to teach the subject, it should be put into good hands. The first citizen of the school, the principal, would seem to be the proper teacher of civics. In no department of his work will the principal find his influence more potent and permanent than in his work with his pupils in the study of government. Nowhere else can he give them so freely of himself; at no other time will he find their minds more plastic, more receptive, or more responsive to generous and truthful precept. The class may be resolved into a little commonwealth where questions of state are discussed with fullness and fairness. By a wise direction of the discussion the teacher may lead his pupils to become conscious of and to put into practice some of the cardinal virtues of citizenship. By means of the debate they may learn to tolerate and respect the opinion of others, to recognize the worth of others, to express themselves with candor but not with violence and abuse, to abandon notions based upon ignorance and prejudice, to submit to the will of the majority. The questions discussed should be as far as possible such as directly affect their school life. Thus, it is a question whether the class as a body shall visit a court in session or a legislature in session. It can go to one but not to both. The teacher without throwing his influence this way or that may allow the question to be discussed until the claims for both places are fully brought out. He may then put the matter to a vote. They will probably vote for the place where the prospect yields most fun. But the lesson will be none the less impressive for that. The main

thing is to arouse a genuine division of sentiment and abide faithfully by the result of the vote. Those who are outvoted will have a far keener perception of the meaning of majority rule than they could ever have gained from the words of a book.

In the conflicts and business of this little State the pupils may learn to recognize the personal worth of others, and in so doing they are learning the true lesson of the brotherhood of man, for an altruism that does not rest upon respect and regard is a cold mockery and is little better than quiet selfishness. The discussion may be so conducted as to result in the formulation by the pupils themselves of a set of rules for the citizen's guidance, a kind of citizen's decalogue. Then, their hearts as well as their minds having been reached, while in the glow of conviction they may be taught to say :

I must not cheat the State.

I must not cheat the railroad.

I must give a due share of my time and energy to public affairs.

I must vote when it is my privilege to.

I must not debauch my fellows by bribing them.

I must make a decent living if it is in my power.

I must prefer my country to my party.

Conviction through discussion and interest through the transaction of business is the key to the method to be employed. The pupils should actually participate in the proceedings of some kind of civic body. It was in the town meeting and shire-moot and parliament that the civic qualities of the race were developed, and it is in bodies modeled after some one of these that young people may be most profitably trained for citizenship. There need be no dearth of work for such a body. A constitution and by-laws for its own government may be framed ; a set of rules good for the school may be drawn up ; the village or city charter may be discussed ; petitions may be drafted ; rules for the government of a library, of an athletic association, and so forth.

This practical way of presenting the subject of citizenship has already been tried with notable success. Mr. Wickes, the Principal of the High School in Syracuse, N. Y., has organized a Boys' Congress. Each boy represents a State, and Mr. Wickes presides at the meeting. Bills on timely topics are introduced, resolutions offered, and in fact everything that the United States Congress does in its sessions is reproduced. The

Parliament conducted by the members of the Johns Hopkins University in the Department of History and Politics was found to be a most efficient instrument to awaken interest in and promote the discussion of current politics. In this city also, a number of young men belonging to the Young Men's Christian Association have formed of themselves a Senate. A class in Civil Government is maintained and the knowledge acquired in the class is utilized in the proceedings of the Senate. Many high schools have their debating societies; all should have them, and the conducting of them should be a part of the business of the school.

It is charged against our schools that neither morality nor religion is taught in them; and the charge is well founded. The teaching of religion seems to be out of the question, and the formal teaching of morals does not meet with much favor. In the schedules of the Committee of Ten we find meteorology, and physiography and trigonometry and French, but nothing that relates to the conduct of life—which, after all, is three-fourths of life. Is this wise? Is it right? Should the moral nature of man be so completely ignored in a scheme of education? Is the drift of our teaching wrong? Are science and grammar the only important things in the world? I conceive that the development of the ethical nature of children should receive formal recognition in a system of education. If this is sound doctrine, it is the teacher's duty to aid in this development wherever it is practicable. In the teaching of civil government it is practicable to set pupils morally right upon a large class of questions, and the opportunity to do so should not be lost.

The discussion under the five-minute rule was opened by Professor FRANKLIN H. GIDDINGS, of Columbia College, New York City, as follows:

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:—Never having taught history, I might be supposed to bring to this question an unprejudiced mind. Actually, however, I have brought a prejudiced mind, for, although I have not taught history, I have had occasion to teach those who have studied history, and I have discovered that, as a rule, they know very little or perhaps no history. I have therefore felt in regard to this question, very much as did an acquaintance of mine, who, being in Boston at a time when the legislature, or more particularly the lobby, was converting present politics into future history on the rapid transit question, found himself unable to meet an important engagement because the trolley car would not take him through Washington street. He intimated that

the question of rapid transit was premature, what Boston needed was not rapid transit but transit. I think that we need a little actual history in the school and in the college. Furthermore, I think that we have gone altogether too far in trying to teach history as an introduction to the philosophy of life and of society, and as an introduction to the whole study of causation. I think that history should be taught, for a time at least, until that side of the work is brought up a little, as a record of important events or facts. I should like to see in my class-rooms students who are familiar with the important facts of history, and who have therefore some material—some data, upon which to base the study of social causation. I think that we have been altogether too lenient in the matter of compelling an accurate memorizing of historical facts; but I will not dwell further on this side of the question.

Just one word on the teaching of ethics. I was glad to hear civics presented as a means of teaching civil duty and morality. The question of the teaching of ethics in the schools has long been under discussion, and the discussion has ended in nothing, largely because the discussion has invariably taken the form of a controversy between those who held that ethics should be taught historically, on the basis of an historical religious belief or creed, and those who held that it should be taught as abstract formulas of right and wrong. Ethics cannot be taught to young children successfully as abstract formulas of right and wrong. It can be taught historically and from literature—historical literature. If we rule out religious literature, what remains? I should say, quite as valuable a body of literature as the religious, for our purposes. The teaching of civics can give us the daily problems of ethics which the children should know,—problems of ethics in their political aspects. To how many teachers has the thought occurred that we have in that body of literature, which most people give never a thought to, because of its name, viz., the common law—a true historical and philosophical basis for the teaching of ethics?

A letter of regret from Professor G. M. PHILLIPS, of the State Normal School, West Chester, Pa., was read, stating his inability to be present. His paper was read by Professor TOMLINSON, of Swarthmore Grammar School.

THE PLACE AND TEACHING OF CIVIL GOVERNMENT IN COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS.

BY G. M. PHILLIPS.

At a Teachers' Institute in a Pennsylvania county recently, the chairman of the Republican County Committee said to the writer: "What are you going to talk to the teachers about this morning?" "I am going to talk about a matter that not *half* of your voters understand, and that is the election of the President of the United States," was the answer. "Well," said the political leader, "not *one-tenth* of our voters understand that." And, indeed, we have the most complicated government upon the face of the earth. An absolute monarchy is a simple affair, and a constitutional monarchy, even when so largely controlled by custom and precedent as is Great Britain's, is simple compared with

ours. In Pennsylvania six different forms of government have jurisdiction, and every one of us is subject to not less than four of them. My old friend, Dr. Frank Taylor, late President of the Philadelphia High School, used to insist that just as a species of plants varied more and more under cultivation, and while Hottentots or Feejeeans all look alike, Caucasians present every variety of appearance, so as a people develop and advance further in civilization, its government grows more complicated. Whether the Doctor was right or wrong as to the cause of its complexity, it is clear that we cannot understand nor properly carry on our government without special study. And how can we hope for improvements or political reforms until our government is understood? If, for instance, it were generally realized that in fifteen of our States unnaturalized foreigners may vote for any officer from presidential elector or Congressman down, how long would such a state of affairs exist? And in no other way than in connection with the elements of civil government is it practicable to teach to the great mass of our future voters, the elements of sound and honest political economy.

And where should civil government be taught? In the colleges, of course. We are accustomed to show how overwhelming a proportion of our statesmen have been college graduates, and how immensely one's chances of going to Congress are increased by taking a college course. And yet, upon examination of the catalogues of what would be generally conceded to be the five leading universities and colleges of the territory here represented, I find that in but one of them is there any required work in civil government in the regular or B. A. course. Nor does any of these institutions require *any* knowledge of this subject for admission to college. And I would undertake to point out a half dozen subjects among the requirements of any one of them that its own Faculty would admit to be of less value to their students than civil government. And this value is not only utilitarian but disciplinary, for what can be more provocative of thought than the study of the government of one's own country? No student should be admitted to college without a fair knowledge of this subject. A most commendable modern requirement for admission to college is a list of English texts to be read or studied. Why not at least include the Constitution of the United States among them? It will be found to be fairly good English, and its subject-matter is certainly important enough. And *in* the college or university it is not too much to ask, that civil government be made a required study in every academic course, unless the students can show a thorough knowledge of the subject. Lowell tells a story of a young lawyer who was trying his first case before the Supreme Court of the United States. The young man was laying down at great length the most elementary principles of law, when at length the chief justice stopped him and said: "My young friend, there are *some* things which it may be taken for granted that the Supreme Court of the United States *knows*." Now while I am a thorough believer in the elective system of college studies, there are some things in education that we *must not* take for granted, and one of them is that a man who has gone through college, is necessarily familiar with the principles and practice of our government. Here, of course, it should be studied from its historic and philosophic

standpoint. As for our college preparatory schools, I suppose that we cannot expect them generally to give any considerable attention to this subject until it is required for admission to college, so that practically the responsibility for the work there also rests upon our college faculties.

With respect to the public schools it is enough to be reminded that they are maintained at public expense, and primarily to make good citizens, and certainly in their curriculum no study should have precedence, of civil government. The great barrier to its introduction into the public schools is the ignorance of teachers upon this subject. Ought the time not soon to come when no person will be certificated to teach in the public schools who does not have a good knowledge of the constitution and government of the United States as well as of his local government?

We need to make our teaching of this subject more practical and less theoretical. We must teach the State, county, township or town, borough and city government, as well as the national government. We must not depend too much upon books. I have paid some attention to the correction of errors in text-books, and I have found no line of text-books having so many errors as those on civil government. A few weeks ago I took up a popular book on this subject, which was written by a prominent college professor, has been long and widely used, and has recently been "thoroughly revised and rewritten," and noted nine errors in about as many minutes examination of it. I recently heard a lecture on "Government," given to a class of teachers by a specialist on this subject in one of our greatest universities, in which the lecturer, after describing various forms of government, with special emphasis, of course, upon the all important "town" government, told his hearers that over in England they would find a form of government called a *borough*, completely ignorant of the fact, that in the adjoining State of Connecticut, and just a little further away in New Jersey and Pennsylvania, boroughs have existed everywhere for generations.

In the lower grades of the public schools, it is probably necessary that instruction in civil government should generally be given in connection with United States History. But in the public high schools, and in other secondary schools and colleges, the importance of this subject is such that it should be taught as a separate study. For while theoretically it may be profitable to teach it in connection with History or Political Economy, my experience is that in practice the major subject absorbs all the time and attention of teacher and students. Like the proverbial lying down together of the lion and the lamb, the lamb is inside the lion. Fellow teachers, never in the history of this country have the malcontents and demagogues been so busy and so zealous as now. Never has there been such political ferment and unrest. The people are eager to learn, and are rapidly being educated in this direction. The question is, shall they be educated by the anarchists, the socialists, the malcontents and demagogues generally, or shall they be led into sound and honest views of government? The responsibility is largely with the teachers of America, and most of all with the teachers in its higher institutions. And the fate of the Republic depends upon the result.

Professor GLENN MEAD, Episcopal Academy, Philadelphia, continued the discussion as follows :

If history is to have the place in secondary education that has recently been urged for it, there will have to be a general shaking up of courses in our schools. The schools in which history is taught as an essential subject are few ; in most schools of the present day it is tolerated as a study that may be tucked into a curriculum in odd years for looks, and given to the instructor in elocution to teach, or else it is a concession to the cramming demands of colleges. In such schools the history lessons are apt to be prepared during the morning prayers, or on the street car. These are the existing conditions. The Committee of Ten's conference on history proposes as a remedy a continuous eight-year course, beginning with mythology, comprising courses in American history, Greek and Roman, English, French, civics, and ending with an "intensive" course devoted to the minute study of a period.

Now, how far is this recommendation of those most capable of advising going to be adopted? Just so far, doubtless, as the chief value of history is recognized, namely, its power to train the judgment for clear sightedness in politics. The poor, misguided Athenian Ecclesia did not, perhaps, perceive the hollowness of Cleori's pretensions, but the school-boy who studies Greek history perceives it, and from numerous similar examples in the history of other countries, he acquires the power that will enable him to tell a Washington from a Gates, a Cleveland from a Hill. Is it far-fetched to say that one of the tiny causes of our country's political corruption, is the absence of thorough historical study from our schools?

Of the attractiveness of history, aside from its purpose, there is much to say. A recent writer remarks that "the average child has no innate dislike for history." This is a very mild way of putting it, children are fond of history, and with a good, long course and an enterprising teacher this fondness will grow. The various devices that one can hit upon for teaching history to children are equaled only by the various subjects suggested. Your scholar in history reads of art, of government, of warfare, of statecraft, of local customs, of many religions, of the tribes and races of men, and their movements, of geographical changes, and everything else that concerns men and their activity ; he draws maps, writes compositions, speaks pieces, debates, visits historical spots with his camera, and makes a collection of relics. In teaching history, there is no need of dull routine ; the interest can be stimulated in a new way almost every day. Boys who are commonly said to "hate books" are as much in earnest about their history lessons as others ; consequently in history recitations there is less inattention than in those of other subjects ; you do not have to force the attention either. This fascination of history for young scholars, is not the meanest of its recommendations ; for many boys are lost from school because their indifferent parents find them uninterested in their work. Let such a boy take part in a debate on a Home Rule, or visit a session of the City Councils, and no such complaint will be heard. It is easy to believe that boys who have been well trained in history before going to college, choose history electives when they get there. The boy who has had no such training doesn't

know what the study of history is like. I remember that for some time in college I ignored the courses in American history because I thought my single course in the Grammar School, based only on a short text-book, gave a sufficient knowledge of American history; from which Grammar School course I remembered only such unessential facts as that General Santa Anna had lost a leg, while the Articles of Confederation were forgotten if ever known.

With regard to an exact course, that one suggested by the Committee of Ten's conference seems to reflect too strongly its own composition, six of its members having been college professors. There is no end to the work that a student in college may do on a history course—often in the higher courses he does more than is consistent with good health; and even there he does not often hunt up sources until his Junior or Senior year. A course, such as is recommended for "intensive" study in secondary schools, is hardly possible, even if its usefulness were not in question. The high school of an average American town has no equipment whatever for work in original research. Besides hunting up sources is drudgery, and to be done well requires a responsibility and power for work that is rarely possessed by students in secondary schools. In some specially favored schools, this unique course might be a success; in most schools it could hardly be more than picturesque. In fact, all the way through these recommendations there runs the bias toward unlimited work, that possesses every researchful college professor. For instance, it may be doubted whether Greek and Roman history "with their oriental connections," can be taught thoroughly in one year to boys only fourteen or fifteen years old. The conference closes its remarks in favor of a year of "intensive" study by saying that in this way our high schools may do a kind of work that is done in the best colleges! But the secondary schools just now have all of their own kind of work that they can attend to, and can well afford to let the colleges take care of theirs.

PROFESSOR LANGDON OF BORDENTOWN :—I simply rise to add a form or two which I have looked for in the papers and discussions, and present it because I have not found it. I want simply to emphasize the suggestions of Mr. Forman on the teaching of ethics and the difficulty in the way. We have to reach back of the student to the parents—to the fathers—in order to get this placed in its proper position in our school teaching. The father of one of my students, a Wall street man, and a prominent banker—a business man—not long since wrote me remonstrating upon his son being put to the study of civics and indicating his preference that he be given instead some study that would bear upon his success in business life, adding that he would get a hold of politics soon enough when he got into citizen life. He said, "That is what has turned many of our citizens into ignoramuses, not to say anarchists." But I insisted in my correspondence with him that his son should still study at civics, and I had my way with the boy. The good effect of teaching of civics in our school was illustrated not long ago in this way: I aim to have every boy who stays three years to have a knowledge of the institutions of our country and its laws. Not long since a perplexing question came up as to whether a boy who had broken the law of the school

should be kept in the school. We called a meeting of his school fellows and submitted the question as to whether he could be retained and yet maintain the dignity and quality of the institution. We submitted it to the school in regular form of trial with judge and jury, attorneys for the defence, and all that, and spent the whole night from seven o'clock until twelve in debate which was supported in as earnest a manner as ever debate was supported by men. The presiding judge was an advanced student and the whole thing was done in the most dignified, orderly, earnest, solemn, and I almost might say, religious manner; they felt that a fellow student's fate depended on their decision.

DR. BUTLER :—It was found desirable by the Committee on Entrance Examinations in English, appointed a year ago, to have a conference with the New England preparatory schools and colleges; the conference was successful so that a joint report was made and with the result that the New England Association accepted, without material modifications, the report, and recommended it to the colleges constituting that Association. The Association of Colleges in the Northwest has also adopted the report. The gentlemen constituting our committee were so impressed with the value of their conference with New England Association, that the policy of trying to constitute a standing committee which might in future manage matters of conference with the New England and other associations, seemed so desirable that the Executive Committee has instructed me to report a resolution bearing on the report.

Dr. Butler read the following resolution :

Resolved, That there be appointed by the Chair a standing committee of three (3), the members of which shall serve for a term of one year, whose duty it shall be to act as a Committee of Conference with other similar associations.

On motion the resolution was unanimously adopted.

(For committee, see end of volume.)

On a motion the chairman appointed the following committees to nominate officers for 1895 :

Mr. Melvil Dewey, Secretary of the University of the State of New York; Professor Edmund J. James, University of Pennsylvania; Dr. S. A. Farrand, Newark Academy; President J. F. Goucher, Woman's College, Baltimore; Principal C. B. Wood, Pittsburg High School.

To audit the treasurer's report :

President T. L. Seip, Muhlenburg College; Principal Henry P. Warren, Albany Academy; Professor N. Murray, The Johns Hopkins University.

On motion the convention adjourned to meet at the Woman's College at 2.45 p. m.

At the close of the morning session the delegates to the Association were given a luncheon by the Woman's College in one of their college buildings.

FRIDAY AFTERNOON SESSION.

The Convention met at the Woman's College at 2.45 o'clock.

Meeting called to order by Vice-President Holland.

THE PRESIDENT :—I beg you to remember that our papers are limited to twenty minutes and I, in my position, have no alternative except to enforce the rule, unless it is the wish of the Association, on motion, to order otherwise. The discussion under the five-minute rule contemplates extemporaneous discussion rather than the reading of supplementary papers by gentlemen who have them in their pockets. The idea of having a discussion at these meetings was, if possible, under the heat and interest of the papers read, to strike at something that would be calculated to warm our hearts and excite our enthusiasm. I think that papers hardly tend in that direction. The first paper is from Professor Stoddard, of the University of New York.

Professor FRANCIS HOVEY STODDARD, of the University of the City of New York, presented the report of the Committee on Entrance Requirements in English.

REPORT.

A Conference on Entrance Requirements in English, consisting of a committee of ten appointed by the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, a committee of three appointed by the Commission of Colleges in New England on Admission Examinations, and a committee of two from the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, met in Philadelphia, May 17, 18, and 19, 1894, and adopted the following report, with the understanding that it should be presented for ratification to each of the bodies represented in the Conference :

GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS.

The Conference recommends :

I. That the time allowed for the English examination for entrance to college be not less than two hours.

II. That the books prescribed be divided into two groups—one for reading, the other for more careful study.

III. That in connection with the reading and study of the required books parallel or subsidiary reading be encouraged.

IV. That a considerable amount of English poetry be committed to memory in preparatory study.

V. That the essentials of English Grammar, even if there is no examination in that subject, be not neglected in preparatory study.

Although the Conference believes that the correction of bad English is useful in preparatory study, it does not favor an examination in this subject as a requirement for admission to college.

ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS.

The Conference recommends that the following scheme of entrance requirements in English be adopted by the various colleges :

Entrance Requirements.

Note.—No candidate will be accepted in English whose work is notably defective in point of spelling, punctuation, idiom, or division into paragraphs.

I. *Reading and Practice.*—A certain number of books will be set for reading. The candidate will be required to present evidence of a general knowledge of the subject-matter, and to answer simple questions on the lives of the authors. The form of examination will usually be the writing of a paragraph or two on each of several topics, to be chosen by the candidate from a considerable number—perhaps ten or fifteen—set before him in the examination paper. The treatment of these topics is designed to test the candidate's power of clear and accurate expression, and will call for only a general knowledge of the substance of the books. In place of a part or the whole of this test, the candidate may present an exercise book, properly certified by his instructor, containing compositions, or other written work done in connection with the reading of the books.

The books set for this part of the examination will be :

1895 : Shakespeare's "Twelfth Night ;" "The Sir Roger de Coverley Papers" in "The Spectator ;" Irving's "Sketch Book ;" Scott's "Abbot ;" Webster's "First Bunker Hill Oration ;" Macaulay's "Essay on Milton ;" Longfellow's "Evangeline."

1896 : Shakespeare's "A Midsummer Night's Dream ;" Defoe's "History of the Plague in London ;" Irving's "Tales of a Traveler ;" Scott's "Woodstock ;" Macaulay's "Essay on Milton ;" Longfellow's "Evangeline ;" George Eliot's "Silas Marner."

1897 : Shakespeare's "As You Like It ;" Defoe's "History of the Plague in London ;" Irving's "Tales of a Traveler ;" Hawthorne's "Twice Told Tales ;" Longfellow's "Evangeline ;" George Eliot's "Silas Marner."

1898: Milton's "Paradise Lost" Books I and II; Pope's "Iliad," Books I and XXII; "The Sir Roger de Coverley Papers" in "The Spectator;" Goldsmith's "The Vicar of Wakefield;" Coleridge's "Ancient Mariner;" Southey's "Life of Nelson;" Carlyle's "Essay on Burns;" Lowell's "Vision of Sir Launfal;" Hawthorne's "The House of the Seven Gables."

II. *Study and Practice.*—This part of the examination presupposes the thorough study of each of the works named below. The examination will be upon subject-matter, form, and structure, and will also test the candidate's ability to express his knowledge with clearness and accuracy.

The books set for this part of the examination will be:

1895: Shakespeare's "The Merchant of Venice;" Milton's "L'Allegro," "Il Penseroso," "Comus," and "Lycidas;" Macaulay's "Essay on Addison."

1896: Shakespeare's "The Merchant of Venice;" Milton's "L'Allegro," "Il Penseroso," "Comus," and "Lycidas;" Webster's "First Bunker Hill Oration."

1897: Shakespeare's "The Merchant of Venice;" Burke's "Speech on Conciliation with America;" Scott's "Marmion;" Macaulay's "Life of Samuel Johnson."

1898: Shakespeare's "Macbeth;" Burke's "Speech on Conciliation with America;" De Quincey's "The Flight of a Tartar Tribe;" Tennyson's "The Princess."

REQUIREMENTS FOR AN ADVANCED EXAMINATION.

The Conference recommends that the following scheme be offered as a suggestion or recommendation to colleges desiring to set an advanced examination in English.

Advanced Examination.

NOTE.—The candidate may choose either I. or II.

I. A detailed study of a single period of English literature, and of not fewer than three authors belonging to it; as, for example, of the age of Queen Anne, with special reference to Pope, Swift, and Addison.

II. (a) Old English (Anglo-Saxon), chiefly simple prose and grammar, *or*

(b) Chaucer: *Prologue*, *Knightes Tale* and *Nonne Prestes Tale*, including vocabulary, inflexion, and prosody.

The committee makes the following recommendations to the Association :

I. The adoption of the scheme of requirements for admission as herewith given, and its presentation to the various colleges as officially recommended by the Association.

II. The adoption of the scheme of requirements for advanced examinations in English as herewith given and its presentation to the various colleges as officially recommended by the Association.

III. The appointment of a committee of three persons, to act in co-operation with a committee of the Commission of Colleges in New England on Admission Examinations, a committee of the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, and a committee of the Association of Teachers of English of the North Central States, if such committees be appointed, to select a list of books for the examination requirements of the year 1899, to consider such further business with reference to English Entrance Examinations as may be presented, and to report at the next annual meeting of the Association.

JAMES W. BRIGHT.

GEORGE R. CARPENTER.

WILSON FARRAND.

EDWARD L. GULICK.

JAMES MORGAN HART.

ROLAND S. KEYSER.

WILLIAM H. MAXWELL,

Secretary.

FELIX E. SCHÉLLING.

ALBERT H. SMYTH.

FRANCIS H. STODDARD,

Chairman.

June 20, 1894.

Professor STODDARD then opened the discussion with the following paper :

At the meeting of this association held at Columbia College, December 2, 1893, a committee was appointed consisting of ten persons, five representing the colleges and five the preparatory schools, to consider the present usage in the matter of entrance examinations in English language and literature in the colleges of the association, and to present, if deemed wise, a scheme of uniform entrance requirements in English to be

offered as suggestion to the several colleges of the association. The report of that committee is before you. As chairman of the committee I have been asked to formally present it, with such additional words of explanation as may be proper to this occasion.

I cannot but think it most fortunate for the association that the committee as appointed was so large, and was representative of such diverse educational interests. For the problem set to be solved was an exceedingly difficult one. On the one hand, from the preparatory schools came a demand which absolutely refused to be negatived, for a reasonable uniformity in entrance standards. Modern conditions necessitated it. The larger universities no longer take students only from the region just about them. Harvard and Yale hold examinations in New York ; Princeton, Cornell, University of Pennsylvania, Columbia, draw students from the preparatory schools of New England. The waste of labor involved in the carrying on of half a dozen parallel courses in one subject to fit boys in the same school for the different requirements of Cornell, Columbia, Princeton, New York University, Yale, Harvard, is enormous. A reasonable uniformity—such, for example, as has been in use in the case of the Latin, Greek, mathematics—must be had. Whatever theoretic objections may be made to it, under modern conditions such uniformity is the price to be paid if preparatory instruction in English is to be given in our schools at all. To this conclusion very quickly indeed was your committee driven.

But the difficulties in the way were very great. For the systematic teaching of English is a modern enterprise. There has grown up no traditional usage. There is as yet no formulated scheme of English teaching. The subject has no classical text-books. English teaching has been the chosen field for varied and interesting experiments. Some of the best, side by side with some of the worst, pedagogic work in America has been done in the teaching of English in our preparatory schools, supported in each case by a theory of excellent intention. The most varied usages have prevailed in the colleges, supported in each case by a doctrine of special design. Every plan seemed to be based upon a proposition, the overthrow of which would apparently involve the impairment of great educational systems. The difficulty of harmonizing all these conflicting theories and usages made the problem of co-operation and harmony seem an unsolvable one.

But the very diversity of usage suggested a method of procedure. That method was to frankly state the situation to all these various institutions, colleges, academies and schools, that had been singly struggling with this English problem, and to ask a record of their experience. Your committee therefore prepared circular letters of inquiry. In these letters information was asked in detail concerning the systems of work then in use in the individual instance ; concerning the relative desirability, considered as a whole, of the forms of examination in use and suggested ; concerning the relative value of the separate parts of these examinations ; concerning the relative value for school drill, of the separate works of literature which had been studied—an inquiry, embracing in the New England States thirty-eight works which had been set in the past as books required for examination—concerning the desirability of work in correction of bad English, in formal grammar, in rhetoric, and in other named subjects ; and concerning the suggestions of change in methods of study and plans of examination which had been made in previous reports, especially the report of the Committee of Ten appointed by the National Educational Association. These circulars were sent to about one hundred colleges, and four hundred preparatory schools, in New England, in the Middle States and in Maryland. In most cases, full and careful replies were received from these circulars. These replies were of course confidential, and I shall not here give them in whole or in part. But the responses were most carefully tabulated, and it is upon them that the report now presented is based. Your committee, that is, rested its decisions upon conclusions rendered inevitable after the study of a very large body of evidence ; and the confidence with which the committee present this report is based far more upon this consensus of excellent opinion than upon the satisfaction with which any member of the committee views any specific detail of the scheme presented.

In the first instance, this evidence concerned existing systems. And the inquiry soon came down to one existing system, that in use in most of the New England colleges under the auspices of the Commission of Colleges in New England on Entrance Examinations. This system had been in use for some years in most of the New England colleges, had given fairly good satisfaction, and had accomplished a vast amount of good in unifying and systematizing the study of English in New England. To adopt this system was the simplest solution

of the difficulty ; and to a committee of busy men, getting together from great distances at individual expense, the temptation to end the matter by the adoption of this really serviceable system was a great one. Yet the evidence was against the adoption of this New England plan. Criticism upon it came from New England itself ; the colleges there had outgrown it and demanded a larger and more flexible system ; it could not properly be adopted. Still it was in use ; dozens of schools were modeling their courses upon it ; it must be reckoned with. It could not be adopted ; it could not be ignored. What was to be done ? The remedy, evidently, was to consult the authors and sponsors of the system which occupied such a portion of the field so as to get co-operation with the New England colleges. Now the advisory authorities in New England are two bodies working in harmony with each other—the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, and the Commission of Colleges in New England on Entrance Examinations. Correspondence was opened with these bodies, and your chairman, by invitation, met the New England Commission at its annual meeting in Boston, April 20, 1894. At this meeting, the commission voted to send a delegation—Professors Cook, Winchester and Briggs—to Philadelphia, May 17, 1894, to co-operate with the commission of the Middle States. Two delegates—Messres. Tetlow and Collar—were afterward sent to Philadelphia to represent the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools. At this conference in Philadelphia, which was itself a non-official body, representing the educational institutions of academic and collegiate rank in New England, the Middle States and Maryland, the report was drawn up which forms the basis of the recommendations now made by your committee.

In this report are recognized two applications of theoretic principle and two necessities of practical procedure. In the application of theory it was endeavored, in the first place, to set, if possible, some definite expression of the relation which an examination, occurring at so important a period in educational life as the moment of transfer from school to college, ought to have to all parties and interests concerned. If held at all, this examination ought to be something more than an ingeniously devised inquisition, in accordance with which certain shall be taken and certain left, neither the taken nor the left being quite sure how they came to be accepted or rejected. A good examination ought to be an opportunity as well as an

ordeal ; and it ought to give the candidate as well as the examiner an opportunity. It ought, that is, to be not only a good device for sorting boys, but to be also a presentation in brief of some of the most desired results of the candidate's previous work. This principle seems simple as I read it. In application it involves serious study. For the course in the schools extends over three or four years ; the examination, at most, lasts only three hours. It is evident that but a very few of the subjects considered in the four-years' course can possibly be considered in the three hours' examination. There is a limitation of amount. There is also a limitation of kind. Under the forced conditions of an examination, certain subjects, excellent in school work, seem somewhat undesirable as examination tests. For example, exercises in the correction of bad English are useful in preparatory school work, especially in its earliest stages. But condensed into an examination paper, these exercises in bad English seem lacking in dignity, seem petty, seem disconnected from a large study of principles, and seem unfair to the student, because the capacity of ingenious men for manufacturing bad English is so great that no student can become acquainted with all possible iniquities of language in a single preparatory course. Indeed, one of our advisers went so far as to say that a student might be familiarly acquainted with all the bad English ever written and yet not be fitted to enter college. So, for another example, the study of formal grammar, which, in the hands of a good teacher, is a most useful preparation for composition study, is considered by many teachers as too hard and inflexible for a good examination test. The principle of selection of fit examination subjects was the first problem. The decision of the committee was to solve this problem by such a treatment of the entire examination requirement as would express its purpose and extent ; and it was determined so to word the entire requirement that the treatment, the training and the proficiency desired, rather than certain specific enumerations of details, should be given.

To put this resolve into practice involved the second problem of theory. This was to discover, if possible, what basis of uniformity underlay the conflicting usages of the colleges and schools. And here two most useful previous studies helped a decision. One was the work done some years ago by a committee of this association of which Professor March was an influential member ; the other was the careful report made by

Professor Kittredge, of Harvard, on behalf of the committee appointed by the National Association of Education to consider the English teaching in our schools and colleges. The principles finally settled upon are clearly enough given in the examination form, and I perhaps need not here rehearse them in detail. In brief they suggest that the selection of the works to be studied, as well as the definite presentation of a general method of study, is within the province of the examination requirement. In the plan here presented the works are selected with definite view to a method of treatment to be adopted. For each year a number of works are set for reading and practice, and a smaller number for study and practice; under each of the heads the requirements are as exact and as closely defined as the present development of the science of English teaching will permit.

For the opportunities to be considered in any such plan as this are not solely those of theoretic excellence. There are certain very limiting conditions of possible attainment to be considered. In particular, two practical demands had to be met. One was the demand from both schools and colleges that as much as possible we should avoid disturbance of the existing courses in schools and of the published announcements of colleges. The second was a demand for flexibility of amount while preserving uniformity of kind in the preparatory school work.

The first of these demands was met by the adoption without change of the books which had been recommended for 1895, 1896 and 1897, by the New England Commission. In the scheme presented these books are divided into the two classes and the new requirements are based upon these two classes, uniting the new system to the old with as little indication as possible of severance. For 1898 the conference made its own selection of books, and definitely undertook to represent poetry and prose about equally, to consider historical sequence, and to represent certain distinct periods of time and types of literature. But even for 1898 no very radical changes are made in the naming of the books.

The second of these practical demands—that for flexibility of amount in the examination—really arises from the comparative newness of thorough teaching in English work. The limits of extent of examination in Latin, Greek and mathematics have been made rigid by decades of use. But English work is comparatively new. So the conference divided the

examination into two sections, presuming that colleges desiring a less extended test might let either section first or section second stand as the entire examination, or might prescribe only a portion of the suggested books ; that colleges desiring a more extended test than here prescribed might lay greater or less stress on one or other of the separate sections, or might set section one as a preliminary, with expectation of a more rigid test on section two. So also the conference further suggests Physic's method of note-books for a part of the examination.

To hold the ground already gained, to get elasticity with consistency, to choose the excellent element underlying the existing usage, and to make such an examination as may prove a connecting link between the work of the schools and that of the college—these were the objects sought. Your committee does not feel confident that the report here presented embodies a perfect scheme ; It does believe that it fairly represents the existing state of the art of English teaching in our secondary schools.

Professor JAMES W. BRIGHT, Johns Hopkins University, read a paper, first stating that "The secretary has requested me to say, in justice to my hearers, that owing to a misunderstanding, for which nobody is responsible, this paper is less than twenty-four hours old ; it ought to be up to date."

"The Report of the Committee on Secondary School Studies," better known as the "Report of the Committee of Ten," secured by the National Educational Association, and published and distributed by the United States Bureau of Education, represents what may be regarded as a legislative act, one of the consequences of which is the proposed enactment of the Report which we are now considering.

Among the lessons taught in our national life, none is more clearly stamped upon the common mind than that of the inevitability of some degree of special or class legislation. Theory must ever be in advance of attainment, and if both tend toward the same goal—and that the true goal—there is real achievement ; "a man's reach," even in politics, "should exceed his grasp." In the practice of law-makers there is no surer way—it would appear to be the only way—to the common weal than through special claims, separately considered and equitably adjusted. If perchance this doctrine elicit doubt when applied to political interests, that doubt cannot be cherished in respect of educational interests ; the "Committee of Ten"

has demonstrated that. To sectional enthusiasm was allowed its freest wing; the chance framer of a law to protect the "alewife fishery in Agawam River" was enjoined to frame it well. Adjustments came next, and Equity ruled.

But legislation in general terms, for the common good of all, as for the protection of the person, although it be not the most frequent, is yet a possible and necessary form of procedure. There is an obvious application to the educational senate, which may serve to suggest my first observation upon the Report of the committee.

No definition either of a sound elementary education or of a collegiate course, is at present so acceptable as that in which importance is attached to the study of English, the vernacular language and literature. Here, by common consent, is a fitting application of universal terms: the rightful inheritance of every citizen, the chief factor in general culture. Clearly it has been the privilege of the committee to attempt to legislate in general terms, for the common good of all.

In the exercise of this privilege there was complete harmony in aim and purpose. Details of means and methods were long and carefully discussed, not with a view of arriving at a conclusion in these matters, but so that no important particular might be unprovided for in the comprehensive statement which was to be framed. The entire absence of any disposition to gain exclusive approval of any one method of teaching, or of any particular book or group of books, was the condition most hoped for, and the realization of that hope was to each member of the committee and of the conference a pleasure with the super-added piquancy of a surprise.

My second observation is upon the interpretation of the Report,—the true sense, the intended meaning of its elastic terms. The text is broad, and the doctrine may be broad, but there must be no heresy. If this Report is adopted, it is all important that the teachers in the schools conform to the spirit of the new law. The books required to be read may be read, and the books required to be studied may be studied; that would be much, for the letter of the law is also good; but the spirit is better. The implied doctrine of the Report may be summarized as follows:

1. Every pupil in the secondary schools should receive guidance and counsel in reading books as literature, and in acquiring the habit of storing up in the mind notable lines from the poets.

This is purely ethical. It assumes no speculative doctrine, but merely the belief in what is universally acknowledged to be good.

2. Every pupil in the secondary schools should be trained and encouraged in writing his own language.

There is apparently a trace of doctrine underlying this ; but it is doctrine so little removed from pure ethics—mere rightness of conduct—that for it too, may be claimed a universal assent.

One of the principles here involved, was formulated by the author of "Tom Jones," thus, "An Essay to prove that an author will write better for having some knowledge of the subject on which he writes."

3. By easy and natural gradation every pupil in the secondary schools shall be taught to perceive the grammatical structure of his vernacular, and those features of expression which give to language clearness, precision, fitness and effectiveness—which adapt language to thought and emotion.

Here the sense of the Report puts the stress upon *natural gradation*, and thus sets a limit that excludes premature technicality in what are called Grammar and Rhetoric. If this stress be admitted there can be no withholding of unqualified approval of this feature of the Report.

4. Every pupil in the secondary schools should be required *to study* several representative books, poems and essays, so that he may know them in some true sense as literature ; that from them and from reflection upon the conditions of their production, he may be introduced to a perception of the fundamental principles of literature as an art, with respect to its forms, its functions, its history.

That the discipline of the secondary schools should contribute this much to the foundation of true culture, has, happily, become too obvious to admit of discussion, I have just quoted a sentence from the first great modern novel in the language ; permit me now to cite a few words from two of the most recent works of fiction (I shall let you determine the value of these books as literature), words which contain something more than mere antithesis. "The average reader who reads much remembers little, and is absurdly inaccurate," says, if I do not err in recollection, the author of "The Heavenly Twins," and "Ships that Pass in the Night," contains an apothegm worthy of Bacon : "It is wonderful how much one does learn when one does not read."

No one should be "absurdly inaccurate" if he has been to school, for he should be no longer an "average reader," but one who has *learned to read*, and one who has learned how to learn when he is not reading.

The next paper was presented by Mr. WILSON FARRAND, Newark Academy.

A year ago I had the privilege of presenting to the members of this association some impressions in regard to English teaching in our schools, and in the course of my remarks I ventured upon some mild criticisms of the college entrance requirements in English. I even went so far as to hint at a time, somewhere in the dim and distant future, when we might hope for uniform entrance requirements in English, and requirements, moreover, that should be shaped by joint action of the colleges, and preparatory schools—action based upon the needs of college work and upon the possibilities of school work. I spoke of such a result as greatly to be desired, but as a remote and possible contingency, and I little thought that within a year from that time I should again be accorded the privilege of addressing the association on the same subject, and this time of urging the adoption of a plan drawn up by joint action of the colleges and schools, and a plan that meets squarely every objection then made to the existing state of affairs.

The chief objections urged were : first, that the existing requirements are vague and indefinite ; second, that they set up a wrong standard ; third, that they are not rigidly enforced ; and fourth, that they are not uniform.

Now I urge the adoption of this report, because the putting of it into force by the colleges will mark a decided step in advance on each one of these lines. I say a step in advance. The question as to any proposed requirement is not as to whether it is ideal. I doubt very much if we know enough about English teaching at the present time to formulate an ideal requirement, and if we did, neither colleges nor schools would be able to live up to it. Two points are to be considered in regard to any proposed scheme—Is it an advance, and is it practicable? I believe that this report should be adopted, because the putting of it into force by the colleges will mark a decided step in advance, and because its enforcement by the colleges is practicable.

The first objection to the old requirements was that they were not definite. It has been impossible to tell, either from

study of the college catalogues, or from actual experience with the examinations, what was the standard to be attained.

The proposed requirement is a distinct advance, in that it is more definite. It sets up a standard of attainment in style, and in knowledge of the specified books. It states that the language of the candidate is to be correct in spelling, punctuation, idiom and division into paragraphs, and, further, that the qualities of style to be desired are clearness and accuracy. This is specific. That it is also rational and reasonable will be admitted by all, except by those who hold that the demand for correct spelling is unreasonable, on the ground that spelling is a divine gift, and only to be attained by special favor of Providence. As to the books, it states that in the case of most of them, "only a general knowledge of the substance" is to be required. In the case of a limited number, "thorough study" is demanded, and it is added that "the examination as to these books will be upon subject-matter, form and structure." In this phrase, "subject-matter, form and structure," is to be found, I believe, the only ground in the report on which to base a plausible charge of vagueness. There are only two or three of the committee that drew up the report, who think they know just what those words mean, and the rest of the committee are sure that the interpretation of these few is wrong.

The point is just this. English teachers are substantially agreed that thorough study of a limited number of English classics is extremely desirable. They are by no means agreed, however, as to just what lines that study should follow. Such close study is a new thing in our schools. The methods that will produce the best results can be settled only by experiment and experience. Any attempt to settle them by prescription of a committee would be unwise and unwarrantable. The phrase "subject-matter, form and structure," then is not specific because it was not intended to be specific. It is not vague, but it is general, and its exact interpretation is left to be settled by actual experience. Very few schools are prepared, as yet, to conform satisfactorily to this requirement. This part of the examination must, for a year or two at least, be tentative. We know in a general way what is meant by thorough study of a literary work. Just what points are to be emphasized in such study will have to be settled by the joint experience of college examinations and school classes, just as has been settled in the past the true meaning of Latin, Greek and mathematical requirements.

Frankly admitting then that this particular phrase is general in its meaning, I maintain that it is as specific as is wise or possible; and I urge the adoption of this report because it embodies a requirement that is distinctly more definite and more specific than has been enjoyed in the past.

The second objection to the old system was that it imposed an irrational test and set up a wrong standard for the schools.

Negatively, the proposed requirement marks an advance in that it abolishes the test by means of "an essay on a subject selected from one of the books." This essay was of little value as a test either of ability to write or of knowledge of the books, and it encouraged the schools to train their pupils to write ambitious, imitative, literary essays, instead of to express their own ideas with clearness and simplicity. The "rooting up" of this essay is one of the greatest merits of the committee's work.

Positively, the report marks an advance by recognizing two principles that are of the utmost importance. In the first place it recognizes the principle that in all literary study there are two essential elements, two methods, if you will, both of which are necessary to a symmetrical course. These two elements are reading, simply for a general knowledge of the substance, and close study that will give a more minute and detailed acquaintance with the book, a more thorough understanding of the meaning of particular passages and of the plan and purport of the whole work; in short, study that will cover the entire ground of "subject-matter, form and structure."

In the second place, by the setting of simple questions on the lives of the authors, and by the naming of a list of books chosen on a historical basis, it recognizes the great principle that literature is something more than a collection of elegant extracts, that it is not a dead thing but a living organism, that it is not a mere excrescence, a parasite, on the tree of national life, but that it is an organic part of that life, to be rightly understood only when studied as one of the manifestations of that life. It is not intended by this requirement to add a new study to our curriculum, or to demand a great increase of work on the part of our pupils. It is felt, however, that incidentally, in connection with the reading of a book, it is possible, without great expenditure of time or energy, for the teacher to impress upon the pupil the idea that back of the book there is a man, and for the pupil to learn who and what that man was, when he lived and something of his personality and environment.

It is not expected or desired that the preparatory student shall pursue a systematic, historical study of English literature, but it is believed that it is possible for him to grasp the idea of the continuity of our literature and perhaps to gain some general conception of the course of its development.

I urge, then, the adoption of this report because it embodies a requirement that marks a distinct advance in the standard set before the schools—negatively, in that it abolishes the pernicious “essay,” positively, in that it recognizes the two methods of literary study and the continuity and organic unity of our literature.

The third objection to the old requirements was they were not rigidly enforced. I suppose it may fairly be urged that it is not just to hold legislation responsible for the failure of executive officers to enforce it. The most formidable requirement loses its terrors when a college is unduly anxious to increase the number of its students. The schoolmaster has learned from experience that the true standard for admission to college is not always stated in the college catalogue. Even where the college honestly desires to enforce the requirement, it is no easy thing to do, when so many schools send up pupils thoroughly prepared in other subjects, but weak in English. He would be a brave examiner who conditioned in English all the students that he thought deserved it. And so, no report of a committee can directly affect the laxity with which English requirements are enforced at present; but the more definite you make your requirement, the easier it is to enforce it; the more rational you make your requirement, the easier it is for the schools to live up to it, and the easier it is for the colleges to insist that the schools shall live up to it. I urge, then, the adoption of this report, because it embodies a requirement, that, being more definite and more rational, can be enforced more rigidly.

The fourth objection, and the greatest objection to the old system, was that the requirements are not uniform. Each college is a law unto itself. Many schools have found themselves under the necessity of preparing the pupils in a single class to meet four or five distinct requirements. The result has been that the teacher of preparatory English has been unreasonably burdened; or else, since we are only human after all, and since we have known that the English examinations would not be rigidly enforced, we have deliberately slighted the work. In the average school it is simply an impossibility

to arrange a satisfactory course in English if any attempt is made to conform to varying requirements. Some schools have deliberately given up the attempt to meet the college requirements, have shaped their English courses on independent lines, and have frankly said to pupils: "The college entrance examination in English is a farce. Read as many of the books as you can comfortably in the last few weeks. Such and such books, however, you may safely omit. When it comes to the examination, if you know anything about one of the assigned essay subjects, well and good. If not, don't lose your head. Either put down one of the assigned titles, and under it write some general reflections of a literary character; or else choose a subject for yourself, and write an essay that will show that you know something about one of the books. If you don't lose your head, you are tolerably sure to pass." And the success of those pupils has amply justified the worldly wisdom of the policy.

This policy has been adopted by schools that were simply anxious to get pupils into college in the shortest possible time, and with the least possible trouble; and it has also been adopted by schools that were anxious to do good work in English, but believed that they could attain better results by following out an independent course, than by attempting to meet four or five different requirements.

Now I submit that a requirement that patiently endures such treatment as that, needs either to be radically reformed or to be altogether abolished. In an ideal state of affairs there would be no need of an English requirement. A thorough training in the mother tongue, and an acquaintance with our literature ought to be pre-supposed in the case of every pupil who presents himself for admission to college. But, unfortunately, it is not at present safe to make that supposition, and it is of no use to talk of abolishing the English requirement. It must be reformed, and the most needful reform is in the line of uniformity. It is the universal testimony of schoolmasters that we can do better work if we have a uniform requirement, even if it is not the best that may be devised. The strongest argument, the unanswerable argument in favor of this report, is that its adoption by the colleges will give us uniformity. There may be flaws in the report, it would be strange if there were not, but any disadvantages arising from such defects are more than overbalanced by the advantages to be gained by uniformity. We can do better work in the schools with a uniform

requirement, even if it is full of flaws, than with varying requirements, each one perfect in its way.

Some colleges in the past have undoubtedly sinned through ignorance of what harm they were doing to the schools. We do not intend that this excuse shall be valid any longer. If there are any colleges that still decline to come into the fold of uniformity we propose to raise a cry so loud and so prolonged, that it will not be possible to plead ignorance as a reason for staying out on the bleak hillside of individualism.

Some colleges have avowedly set requirements of their own because of conscientious inability to conform to the system heretofore proposed to them. We respect their motives, but we protest against their making a foot-ball of the preparatory course, against their piling burdens on the shoulders of the schoolmaster in order to emphasize their dissent from the position of their collegiate brethren. It would be wiser, it would be kindlier, it would be more helpful to the cause of education not to secede, but to unite with the others and to devote their energies to bringing about a reform from within. This report meeting squarely every important objection that has been raised against the system heretofore proposed, takes away all ground for separation for conscience' sake.

I urge then the adoption of this report, because it embodies a requirement that can be accepted by all the colleges, and that, therefore, makes possible the supplying of the most pressing need of our English courses to-day—uniformity of college requirements.

There are other aspects of this question that tempt one to enlarge upon them. I believe that the work of this committee has a significance far beyond that which appears on the surface. Already its influence has spread beyond the boundaries of our own district and seems likely to become national in its scope. Even more important is its prophecy for the future. What has been done once, can be done again ; and I believe that this report points the way to a better state of things, that it marks a long step in the direction of educational unity. It is an enticing theme, but I leave it for abler hands.

My part is to present to you the plea of the preparatory schools for the immediate adoption and enforcement of this report. Gentlemen of the colleges, give us a specific requirement, that we may know exactly what is desired of us. Give us a rational requirement which will commend itself to our judgment, so that we may work with enthusiasm, and not

simply to meet an examination. Give us a requirement so enforced as to make it a serious and a dignified thing. Give us, above all, a uniform requirement so that we may concentrate our time and our energy along one line. Your committee has made plain the way in which these results can be accomplished. In the name, then, of the preparatory schools, and for the sake of sound English training in those schools I appeal to the colleges to adopt this report even though you may not approve of all its details. So doing you will make this requirement a help, and not a hindrance in our work ; and you will do much to raise to its rightful place the study of our mother tongue, and of that literature which is the glorious heritage of the English race.

The following paper on the same topic was read by Professor BLISS PERRY, Princeton College :

I have selected for discussion the fourth general recommendation of the conference, which urges the memorizing of a considerable amount of English poetry in preparatory study.

The educational value of the study of poetry is so well recognized that any general plea for it is unnecessary. The manner, however, in which poetry is to be taught, and its relation to other preparatory instruction in English, needs, it may be, an especial emphasis at this time. In presenting its report, the committee calls attention to the fact that the preparatory schools desire the limits of the English examination to be closely defined. This desire for stricter definition is natural, and it is in the interest of both school and college that it should be met by an exact statement of the entrance requirements. Such a statement the report provides, but it is one of the excellencies of the report that it also recognizes that certain lines of work are to be encouraged, even if they lead to results that are too intangible to be registered by the pencil of an examiner. We are about to take a forward step in English instruction. The adoption of this report will secure in the candidates for college a more exact discipline, a sense of historical sequence in the development of English literature, a sounder scholarship. In response to the definite requirements of the colleges, the schools will furnish a more definite training. But in this very demand for definiteness there lurks a danger. For the moment we attempt to teach literature as such, we enter a province where precise training, historical information, the

discipline of exact scholarship, are after all inadequate. To apprehend imaginative literature, one must not merely know, one must feel. In teaching it, the pupil must be helped to feel, and not merely taught to understand. Poetry is the finest utterance of the human spirit. It is to be spiritually discerned. It can be discerned in no other way.

There is nothing more irritating, in educational discussions, than the depreciation of philology by men who are themselves ignorant of the aims and methods of philological research. We may be certain, nevertheless, that the fancied antagonism between philology and literature will be insisted upon just as long as teachers of English confuse the distinction between scientific and æsthetic training, and fail to recognize that a method which yields rich harvests at one stage in a pupil's development, may prove altogether barren at another. University courses in English are everywhere, and properly, following scientific methods. If they occasionally produce a scholar whose feeling for literature has been lost in the process of knowing about literature, it marks a defect in the scholar rather than in the method. Undergraduate courses in English are increasingly and perhaps now prevailingly scientific; that is to say, the teacher uses essentially the same modes of instruction that are used in biology or physics, though perhaps with a furtive hope that the outcome may be a more intelligent appreciation of literature, rather than the discipline afforded by the investigation of facts pertaining to literature. And the analytic method has won its way into the preparatory schools. Dull boys who do not care for their "Julius Cæsar," we are told, find their attention and then their interest aroused when they are made to count run-on and end-stopped lines, to classify epithets, to collect specimens of tone-color. It is to be hoped that the adoption of the report before us will encourage the examination of phenomena at first hand, the tracing of cause and effect, the accurate placing of the individual instance under a clearly conceived general law, which is demanded by the scientific spirit. The place which English has gained for itself in the last ten years is largely due to those teachers who have themselves been trained in the school of exact research, and have known how to make their work intellectually respectable.

We should not forget, however, that in dealing with literature we are dealing with an art. We bring a boy into contact with a literary masterpiece, not that he may know more, but

that he may experience a new and high pleasure. In the presence of the beautiful, he is to forget to analyze, to classify. Imaginative literature opens to him a realm where his conceptions may be all the richer for being vague. It is the teacher's privilege to introduce a boy to this realm, to open for him the doors of the wonder-world. It is a delicate task and for most of us a difficult one. How much easier it is to teach Chaucer's "Prologue" as middle English than as poetry, to train a boy in the prosody of "Comus," than to help him to care for "Comus," to trace for him the indebtedness of Tennyson's "Ulysses" to Dante, than to make him responsive to the spirit of the "Ulysses!" How much simpler to drill a pupil in counting syllables and hunting etymologies and comparing constructions, than it is to bring him into touch with a great mind! Admirable as are those methods which students of literature have borrowed from students of the physical sciences, they do not after all explain literature. Into the fore-court of the temple they may carry us, but not into the temple itself. The analytic method is far from being the best for every pupil, at every stage of that pupil's growth, and the report before us is nowhere wiser than in the flexibility it allows. While it insists upon the clear and orderly knowing of certain facts about English literature, it also suggests the synthetic method of apprehending literature; it recommends the memorizing of a great deal of poetry.

In his opportunity to foster a taste for poetry, the preparatory teacher has an immense advantage over the college instructor. "In talking with scholars," says Emerson, "I observe that they lost on ruder companions those years of boyhood which alone could give imaginative literature a religious and infinite quality in their esteem." The period of adolescence is for well-known psychological reasons the period when the power of poetry is for the first time—and often, alas, for the last time—adequately felt. The youth's thoughts are drenched with emotion, and he has not yet made the discovery that emotional language is sentimental. Poetry seems to him a natural utterance. When he develops the critical faculty, his taste in poetry may change, though he need not lose the taste for poetry. But the men who have first learned to love verse after they were twenty, are very few indeed. Not until we remember that poetry is the only one of the fine arts always accessible to the average American youth, that a mind responsive to emotional thought, an ear trained to harmonious numbers,

must be acquired in boyhood or probably not at all, are we ready to appreciate the significance of that early familiarity with poetry which the report before us recommends.

There is another reason, too, why the preparatory teacher can do easily what a college teacher finds impossible. Imaginative literature has rarely flourished in the academic atmosphere, but the atmosphere of the American college is, too often, not even academic. If the still air of delightful studies has not proved, upon the whole, favorable to poetry, what shall be said of the unquiet air breathed by our present undergraduates! The whirl of varied interests, social, musical, journalistic, diplomatic; the absorbing passion for physical contests; the cosmopolitan indifferentism which sophisticated youth bring with them from the cities; the dilettantism that has followed in the wake of wealth; the premature assertion of the claims of the future profession, so that the student is turned into an embryo lawyer or chemist or physician; the rigidly scientific habit of mind which is encouraged in almost every class-room; nay, that scientific treatment of literature itself to which many of us are devoting our energies;—each and all of these tendencies, however deplorable or debatable or admirable they may be, have this trait in common: they are distinctly unfavorable to poetry. It is best to confess this frankly. In recommending that intimate acquaintance with the vital spirit of poetry, that æsthetic apprehension of a poem which is possible only when the memory retains it as a whole, the report is urging upon the schools a task to which the colleges are unequal.

If memorizing, however, is understood to imply a mere mechanical repetition of the lines, this recommendation will be likely to prove worse than useless. Nothing short of the most effective vocal rendering will secure the desired results. Increased attention to the cultivation of the voice in the preparatory schools is to be urged on many grounds, but not the least of these is to be found in the relation of vocal culture to the interpretation of poetry. Professor Corson has recently declared that examinations in literature should consist of vocal interpretation merely, which would reveal the extent of a student's assimilation of the intellectually indefinite elements of a literary work. He admits that this would require a degree of vocal culture quite beyond the reach of most pupils at present, but theoretically there can be little doubt of the soundness of his position. From the standpoint of æsthetics, a poem is not a poem until it is recited, any more than a play is a play

until it is staged, or music music until it is rendered. The page of poetry, like the sheet of music, is nothing but black marks on paper, arbitrary symbols waiting to be interpreted. Express it, crowd into it the thought, the feeling, the combinations of musical sound which those symbols call for, and you have the poem. Then for the first time can you judge its value. It should be weighed when full, and not when it is empty. "For a long time," says Dr. Van Dyke in his "Poetry of Tennyson," "I misunderstood *Maud* and underrated it. This came from looking at it from the wrong point of view. I was enlightened by hearing the poet himself read it aloud."

Under wise guidance an increased emphasis upon the vocal interpretation of poetry in the preparatory years is desirable on three grounds. First, such an interpretation restores the balance between knowledge and feeling. As the pupil advances, each step in analysis should be accompanied by a synthetic process. While we are training a boy to see parts, in the literary product under investigation, we should also let him feel wholes. While he is being taught laboratory methods elsewhere, and in examining the outer husk of literature is properly using the laboratory method here as well, a true culture demands that all this analytic activity should be supplemented by another, an æsthetic activity, that the boy should be encouraged to feel, as well as made to know.

Secondly, the vocal interpretation of poetry teaches, as nothing else can, the secrets of poetic form. He learns best the subtle power of musically ordered speech who early follows with his own lips the cadences of the poets. Those of us who teach poetry in the upper years of the college course, and attempt a scientific formulation of the laws of rhythm, metre, rhyme, tone quality, are constantly discovering that our pupils have no experimental acquaintance with these media of poetic expression, and consequently no sensitiveness to modifications of form. They may be taught to explain a change from iambic to anapaestic movement, but they do not feel a quickened movement in the blood. Not so the student who in boyhood has known by heart and recited with delight every syllable of a fine poem. With such a boy the feeling for form becomes an instinct. Readers of Ruskin will recall the familiar passage of his *Praeterita*, in which that master of style relates how his mother, with steady, daily toil, compelled him to repeat aloud the Scriptures, particularly the poetic passages, noticing every intonation of his voice, until every word was familiar to his

ear in habitual music. "With the chapters thus gradually possessed, from the first word to the last," he says, "I had to learn the whole body of the fine old Scottish paraphrases, which are good melodious and forceful verse; and to which, together with the Bible itself, I owe the first cultivation of my ear in sound. Once knowing the thirty-second of Deuteronomy, the 119th Psalm, the fifteenth of First Corinthians, the Sermon on the Mount and most of the Apocalypse, every syllable by heart, and having always a way of thinking with myself what words meant, it was not possible for me, even in the foolishness of youth, to write entirely superficial or formal English."

And lastly, a vocal interpretation implies an adequate realization of the content of poetry. It necessitates a logical interpretation of the poem. To recite it effectively you must, in Ruskin's phrase, have a way of thinking with yourself what words mean. But it necessitates something more than a mere translation of the poem into terms of the understanding; it requires an interpretation of the emotional element in the poem, that quality by virtue of which it has become a poem. A boy may be able to parse a stanza, and scan it, and know every etymology in it, or trace every allusion, and nevertheless not have the remotest idea what it is all about. The moment he recites the stanza, he reveals the extent of his assimilation of its spirit. It is because the vocal interpretation of a poem brings a boy or girl into sympathetic contact with the informing life of it, into stimulating touch with the personality which is back of the poem, that it is chiefly to be urged. What is needed in the schools is a quickened sympathy with literature, and not merely a better system of coaching for the entrance examination. A boy who knows by heart and can give an appropriate oral rendering of "The Vision of Sir Launfal," or "Thanatopsis," or "The Lotus Eaters," or the "Ode on Immortality," has already received a literary culture, an education of the latent powers of apprehension, emotion, expression, which is of more significance for him at that stage of his growth, than would be the mastery of Ryland's "Chronological Outlines" from cover to cover, or an acquaintance with the history of English syntax from the beginning until now. The schools can give him this culture if they will. It demands of the teacher a catholic literary taste, some knowledge of the proper use of the voice, and a real and not simply a professional interest in the pupil. It requires, as Ruskin's mother discovered, time

and patience, yet there is no investment of time and patience which promises surer returns.

It may be that I have given this fourth general recommendation a slightly different interpretation from that intended by its authors, but if by the committing to memory of a considerable amount of English poetry in preparatory study is to be understood the appropriation and expression of the form and content of masterpieces of imaginative literature, then the adoption of the recommendation, which so admirably supplements the other features of the report, will be a distinct and lasting service to education.

The discussion of the same subject was continued by Mr. PERCIVAL CHUBB, Brooklyn Public Schools, who read the following paper :

This report, and the report of the Conference appointed by the Committee of Ten upon which it is based, have been so vigorously belabored by hammers, large and small, that the last grain of gold has probably been struck out of them. I have, as the last contributor to this lengthy discussion, the uneasy feeling that the odds are heavy against my being able to say anything new that will be true, or anything true which I can enforce with new argument.

The report before us indicates that the battle for the freeing of English studies in secondary schools from scholastic bonds that choked the life out of them, has been won. It is, happily, too late now to unfurl any new banner of defiance or to shout any new battle-cry. Victory is won ; and for the moment it were fitting rather that we flute gently on the pipes of peace to celebrate the triumph. Nevertheless, we must not in our pipings forget that sterner business awaits us, the work of reaping the full fruits of conquest. We have to decide how the new freedom is to be turned to account, the new privileges enjoyed. However, we are not here to-day to discuss the troubles of administration, but to consider the rosy prospects held forth by the report.

I approach this report from the standpoint of the High School teacher of English, who regards it primarily in its bearing upon his own work. How does it affect the standards, the ideals, the spirit and the methods that ought to prevail in the High School? Are the requirements which it proposes consistent with the higher purposes of English study in the High School? These are the first questions to be answered.

In discussing this matter it may, I suppose, be assumed that these requirements of the colleges are exacted only because the standards and aims set by High Schools, Academies and other so-called Preparatory Schools, have not up to the present been such as Colleges could accept as adequate or proper. Under a rational system of education, in which the stages from the Kindergarten to the University followed one another closely and progressively, the graduate from the High School would not be called on to pass a special examination on entering college. Just as a pupil now passes, on a certificate of graduation, from the Primary to the Grammar School, and thence to the High School; he would, under a system of perfectly correlated educational institutions, pass upon similar evidence from the High School to the College. We may all—and especially those who are tempted to exclaim, “A plague upon all your examinations,”—pray for the speedy coming of that fair time. Meanwhile, the necessity for a test of proficiency must be admitted; only, let us jealously scrutinize the requirements, because they do in effect determine the course of our English work in the High School.

Approaching the subject with the foregoing considerations in mind, it may be urged by the High School teacher that the first condition to be met by the examination requirements is this: that they shall be such as the graduate of a properly graded and well-conducted High School shall be able to satisfy without extra or special work. They must involve neither a disturbance of the ordinary curriculum, nor the imposition of additional work upon those who are going to College. In other words they must not create any gulf between the High School and the College, which the candidate for admission to College can leap only by an anxious girding of the loins or by lighting the lamp that holds the sacred midnight oil. Nor, again, must they render necessary any differentiation of the course of study on behalf of the few who are to proceed to college, as distinguished from the many who will not. The Conference appointed by the Committee of Ten was emphatic in recommending that the course of study in High Schools should be identical for the two sets of students; and this ground is taken here.

The requirements must, then, be consistent with, and should indeed encourage, a scheme of English study that will supply the soundest and richest culture possible under the circumstances to the youth whose school education will cease when

he leaves the High School. They must encourage a scheme that will equip and fortify the student for life ; a scheme that will tend to foster noble admirations and just appreciations ; that will implant a love of letters, and will aid the student to distinguish good from bad and from poor in the literature of daily life—the latest drawing-room ballad, the newest play, the last short story or very short poem in the current *Century* or *Atlantic*.

These are exacting demands to make, and yet I think that the proposed requirements will answer to them. Of course, everything will depend upon the way in which the recommendations of the report are carried into effect ; but we may judge them now by what they make possible under a liberal administration. They make for breadth and comprehensiveness in literary studies, and they allow a refreshing freedom in methods of instruction. Furthermore, they allow of the practical recognition of literature as the first agency of a liberal culture—the most powerful of all agencies in forming character, because it educates the heart as well as the head, the imagination as well as the reason.

Passing to details, we may note at once the two most important and revolutionary proposals : (1) as regards the writing of English, the proposal to abolish the long composition on a set theme ; and (2) as regards the reading of English classics, the proposal to divide the books prescribed into two sets—one set to be studied closely for their form and structure, as well as for their substance ; the other set to be read cursorily for their substance, their marrow of human interest.

As to the abolition of the lengthy composition on a general theme, in favor of a few paragraphs on a wide range of topics connected with the books selected for reading,—there may be some room for disapproval. The lengthy composition does, to be sure, bring to the test powers of construction, of arrangement, of connected and continuous thinking, which are not tested under the new requirement. But this disadvantage is outweighed by a great gain. The new requirement will help to get rid of the mischievous notion that the candidate's power of correct expression is to be judged almost entirely by the very special care with which he writes a composition. The sensible course is to judge the candidate by his normal, habitual manner of writing. The time will doubtless come when the candidate's proficiency as a writer will be estimated by the quality of the whole of his written work upon all subjects, and not by his peculiar efforts in the English room only.

Omitting now all comments upon minor points, I wish to devote the rest of my time to a consideration of the second revolutionary proposal mentioned above:—the prescribing, together with the books that are to be read for their form and structure, of twice as many that are to be read freely and generally for their substance, and not for the sake of the spoils, philological, grammatical and rhetorical, to be laboriously garnered from them. This is, undoubtedly, the revolution. It announces the deluge that is to overwhelm the pedants and float the ark of the new dispensation, with its precious freight of reformers. It, more than anything else, will prove what I have already asserted: that the recommendations of the report do not clash with, but rather promote, the highest ideals of literary study.

But let us be circumspect. Even this division of books into a group for minute dissection and a group for general reading, has its snares. It would, for instance, be a pity to lead the student to regard certain books as mere *corpora vilia*, inviting the knife of the literary surgeon. This result may be averted if certain precautions are taken. The works selected for careful study should be as varied as possible; no one author and no one work should be unduly drawn upon. On this account the selection of four of Milton's shorter poems for the years 1895 and 1896 may be questioned. Again, the works should be moderately short and interesting throughout; and on this account it may be doubted whether Scott's "Marmion" is a wise choice for 1897. Finally, the works should be works that will wear well; works full of music and magic; works that unfold endlessly new flowers of thought and beauty.

As to the works in the second class, those, namely, which are to be read more freely, we may be glad that their number, in proportion to works in the other class, is so large. We need a broader literary culture in the high school. The pupils should be encouraged to read much and in various directions; for, as Matthew Arnold insisted, it is only by wide reading that one acquires the tact and the insight which are the basis of reliable judgment. Let the student gain a commanding outlook upon the kingdom of letters, and let there be developed in him a sense of the infinite riches of literature, and of the value of the light which it reflects upon human life and nature and art. This may now be done, as it might never be done before. The pupil may now read with his teacher many of the great books of the world without being required to squeeze out of

them the last dram of grammatical, philological or rhetorical essences. He may read them intent upon their substance, drawing unconstrainedly upon their wisdom, their beauty, their passion and their heroism. He may read them, in connection with their authors, as expressions of personality ; and, in connection with the age in which they were written, as the outcome of the movements and tendencies of an epoch. Only in this way,—studied freely for their absolute ethical and æsthetic value, for their value as expressions of personality, and for their value as historical documents,—may books become powerful formative agencies, moulding and enriching character as nothing else can.

I do not hesitate to emphasize this aspect of the matter. The central aim of the teacher of English literature must be to generate a lasting love of great books, and to develop in his students a sense of the power for goodness and truth and beauty that resides in them. All other aims are secondary to this, are unimportant beside it. If we believe with Wordsworth, as our first article of faith, that we live by admiration, hope and love ; if we believe that in the quality and range of a man's admirations are to be found the ruling factors of his character ; and, furthermore, if we believe that these admirations or sympathies find their main source of life in the imagination, then we shall make our literary studies subserve the main purposes of awaking and fostering noble admirations and quickening and clarifying the imagination. For what do we English teachers desire to promote ? Is it the culture of knowledge or the culture of power ? Develop the power, the love ; and it will lead to the conquest of knowledge. The teacher whose work has been cramped by the unwise requirements of the colleges has been asking for opportunities to pursue these aims ; and because he gets a good measure of liberty under these new requirements, he will hail them with glee and with gratitude. He may now go freely about his work ;—provided, that is, that the recommendations are followed out in a liberal spirit. It remains only to be seen whether or not the questions put upon the books prescribed for general reading will deal with what is vital and human in the books ; whether or not they will require the discussion of character, of plot and action, of the truth and suggestiveness of great ideas. It is to be hoped that no touch of pedantry will defeat the higher ends to be subserved by this requirement of general reading.

As to the works to be selected in this class, my idea is that they should, taken together with the works in the other class, cover the great periods of literary history, and illustrate both the leading movements of thought and culture and the course of literary history. They should also represent as many literary species as possible. But let no inferior works be included; let the student be kept on the greater elevations of the literary landscape, and look from these across the lower peaks and pleasant valleys beneath him. Let him, if possible, be encouraged to undertake comparative studies which bring him into contact with the masterpieces of other literatures. With his study of the Shakespearean drama let him be stimulated to read some of the products of the classic drama of Greece, of Rome and of France.

Finally, I would plead for the inclusion of contemporary works in the list of prescribed books. Why should not the student be brought into contact in the class-room with books warm with the life of his own time, the life which he knows and in which he shares? It will not suffice to prescribe masterpieces by Dickens and Thackeray, Reade and Kingsley, George Eliot and the Brontes, Tennyson and the Brownings; Hawthorne and Emerson, Whittier and Lowell. No, let Howells and Cable and Miss Wilkins; Hardy and Stevenson, Kipling, Barrie and Weyman be drawn upon in their turn. What is to prevent this? Certainly, not the necessity of annotated editions. These may fortunately be dispensed with: they will be needed only in the case of the works to be mastered in detail. And it would surely be the last, but not the least, of gains brought by the new requirements, that the close relation of Literature to Life, of Art to Fact, of Imagination to Science would be made apparent. The old and the new might go hand in hand: old Herrick might companion Miss Emily Dickinson. A keen interest in contemporary literature might be aroused; and a new ethical and artistic outlook upon contemporary life be made possible. For, after all, the master-impulse, which should govern teacher and pupil, is the endeavor to see Literature and all Art, whatsoever, as the mirrors of something greater than themselves. We must use Literature and the Arts to glorify life; and to evoke the great undersong of Divine harmony of which the whole creation is the only perfect expression.

CHAIRMAN :—Professor F. A. MARCH, of Lafayette College, will open the general discussion :

Professor MARCH :—We are all much indebted to the committee for their sagacious and successful management of this matter. The adoption of their report will mark an important advance in the study of English in the preparatory schools.

The colleges will understand that English is to be made a serious study. It is by far the most important of languages. Much knowledge, and accurate knowledge, both of the language and literature, is demanded by this report. The schools must accept the necessity of giving it time freely.

The preparation for college outlined in this plan demands five recitations a week in English through the whole of a high school course of four years :

One literature day,
Two language days,
Two practice days.

The literature day should be devoted to directing the reading of the class and making it interesting, and to examinations to see that the weekly portions have been properly read. Study of the biography of authors and something of the history of literature belongs to this exercise. It would be well to prepare a printed program for this course, dividing the books prescribed for reading into suitable weekly portions, and adding directions and suggestions to teachers as to the topics to be brought up with each portion, and the methods of making each literature day interesting and educative. Model exercises upon each of the different kinds of reading might be given, upon a short story, a chapter of a novel, a lyric poem, and the like.

Colleges which accept certificates in place of examinations may require them to state that the full number of literature days have been taken.

As to language days, two days a week at least should be given to recitations on the books prescribed for study. They should be substantially like those in Latin and Greek classics, analyzing the text, reading it clause by clause, questioning carefully upon grammar and dictionary work, and upon metrical, æsthetical, rhetorical, historical, biographical, and other matters necessary to the understanding of the books, so as to be ready for an examination paper upon any passage selected from them.

The practice days, two a week, should be given to the use of living English: (1) To practice in writing letters, advertisements, reports, descriptions, etc. (2) To reading aloud, and declamation, debate, or other natural speaking in public. These days may be used in part on the literature, reading and reciting selected passages of poetry and prose, and writing on topics connected with it. School exercise books may be sent up for college examination.

Colleges will, no doubt, freely accept other books read and studied in good form, as equivalents for those specified, as they do in Greek and Latin, so that teachers who find themselves unable to prepare new sets of books every year, as most thorough teachers will, can send up students on the same set year after year.

Professor JOHN B. VAN METER, Woman's College, Baltimore :—Since nothing but a squib is expected from me, I think I might be permitted to set it off without being isolated upon the platform. I am glad to know that nothing more is expected at this point. When I was a boy in Philadelphia, we understood by a "squib" a fire-cracker that would not explode.

I have only to express my appreciation of this report, and for all that it may be worth, my approval of the plan which it contains. I would not allege as one of the grounds of that approval that the plan is an ideal one. It may be, but upon general principles I presume that it is not. I do not suppose that it expresses the full thought of any one person who was engaged in framing it. Two or three things which have either been hinted at already or elaborated I may call attention to without discussing them to any great extent. I think it will be unnecessary for me to do any more.

The plan is uniform, that is, it aims at a uniform system of work in the preparatory schools and a uniform requirement on the part of the colleges. At the first blush this commends it to us all. I should suppose that it would commend it especially to those members of this body who are instructors in preparatory schools, and who have scarcely known, sometimes, what path of preparation to pursue in order to prepare students who are associated in the same classes for different colleges having different requirements.

Of course we may expect too much from a plan which even aims at uniformity. We shall not realize uniformity of preparation simply because we have uniformity of plan. In different schools the plan will be carried out with different degrees of strictness and success. Even in the same school the plan will reach different results as it deals with pupils of different aptitudes and diverse early environment. It, however, awakens at least a reasonable expectation that there will now come to the colleges from the secondary schools that may adopt this plan, students who have journeyed along the same path of study and have seen the same sky and outlines and landmarks, although they may not all have taken in the whole landscape.

Secretary MELVIL DEWEY, of the University of the State of New York :—A dozen people have asked me in New York, "What about these English requirements?" Our greatest troubles have been the preparatory schools and the responsibility rests mostly with the colleges in making these a success. This report gives me new courage. We have had a great many students come to us who were very deficient in English; we have urged upon the preparatory schools the necessity of bringing up the standard of their work in this direction without results. From time to time the requirements have been raised and that has not produced any better results. What we have done in New York is this,—In the first place we insisted upon putting upon every credential we issued English. Secondly, we added to our list of English studies twenty counts; we had English and rhetoric; we had advanced English, English composition, a course in American literature and one in English reading. We had four times as much English as had been given before. We put on twelve more counts establishing reading courses. These were called English-American selections, a course in English prose, a course in

English poetry—eight modern, four classic. In the English classics we put in the great masterpieces of English literature. The next move was to make our examinations half as long and retained no one on the list of candidates who did not give a good minimum rate. The propositions are in shape now and will probably be passed next week. We raise the standard course from three to four years—with no satisfactory preparatory course less than four years. We made a new ordinance not allowing the issue of a credential from the examination department for subject-matter only, but requiring a recognition of the subject-matter and the English in which the examination is written. No matter how much a student knows of geometry or any other branch, unless he knows a sufficient amount of English he cannot pass. Our great point is to encourage reading. This report allows three hours for the examination, but I think it would be better to say two for a minimum. The parallel and subsidiary reading I was delighted with. That a considerable amount of English poetry be committed to memory,—we were in doubt as to just what that means. We were delighted with the system as a whole; the only thing seriously criticised was the repetition in the courses—they should not repeat on each other. For 1897 four of the books are required that had been used in the preceding two years and only two of them now.

A DELEGATE from New York:—You understand now why it is necessary for us to have an Empire Express in the State of New York—to keep up with the secretary of the university. When my astute friend on that committee asked me to allow my name to be put on this program I asked him what he expected I should do, he said, "Something practical."

The only two things I have to say are practical. All the participants in this discussion are apparently Japanese. I have not discovered any enemy, and no one has raised his voice in opposition; and I am not going to begin. I approve of the recommendations of the report. It is to be kept in mind that this report, admirable as it is, will not administer itself, and our first business, after adopting it, is to see to it that it is administered in the spirit of the report itself. The other thing I have to say is even more practical. I move that this association adopt the recommendations attached to this report and discharge the committee with their sincere thanks.

DELEGATE:—I wish to make two amendments: one of them because of the action of the New England Commission which added a very few words to these requirements—the words added were in the second requirement—"and will also test a candidate's ability to express himself;" and a second and further in regard to the appointment of a committee of three—to add the words "North and Western Association."

Professor DEWEY:—I don't want to see these college men all vote alike and then go home and do as they have been doing in the past. If the colleges and preparatory schools vote on these recommendations, I move we shall require in English as good work as we require in other subjects, and not make it anything that looks well on paper, so that a boy who is preparing for English, by cramming for twenty-four hours before the examination, can get through. If it is agreeable, I should

like the requirement to require that a candidate shall give evidence that he has read all these books and can pass an examination to show that he actually has read them.

Professor EMERSON of Cornell:—I would suggest that we are in full sympathy with the report and that so far as Cornell is concerned the plan will be our plan. It gives me exceeding pleasure to be able to say that we have now uniformity for both East and West. I desire to give public expression of our appreciation of the work of the chairman of the committee, Professor Stoddard.

The motion is to amend the report in one slight part by inserting the word "read"—"evidence that the student has read the subject and has a knowledge of the subject-matter therein."

DELEGATE:—There is one objection to this amendment. We may be taking upon ourselves the power of the college in deciding by what method the student is to give satisfactory evidence that he has done the required work. In other words the language of the report in its present shape covers the whole ground, covers Mr. Dewey's amendment.

Mr. DEWEY:—It seems to me that if the committee means for a student to read something, that the student ought to give evidence that he has done so.

The amendment was voted on and lost.

Vote on the original motion carried.

On motion the convention adjourned until 8 p. m.

At the close of the afternoon session the delegates attended a *Tea* given them by the *Bryn Mawr School*.

FRIDAY EVENING SESSION.

The president expressed his regret that DR. PATTON, of Princeton, president of the association, could not be present; and announced that Professor IRA REMSEN, of the Johns Hopkins University, would deliver the address of the evening.

Professor REMSEN:—I have discovered a new use for vice-presidents. I have the honor to be one of the vice-presidents of this association, and when the committee heard this morning that the president could not be here, I was asked whether I would speak in his place. Naturally, I hesitated. But a subject was suggested to me upon which I had recently spoken, and, with reluctance, I accepted the invitation. It is, however, with misgivings that I undertake this task. The occasion on which I spoke was quite informal, and I thought my little speech was a perfectly innocent one, but, in some way, the subject has awakened interest, and for that reason I was invited to speak to you this evening on the same

subject. I can only ask you then to bear with me, and to accept my apology for not having made more careful preparation.*

The subject to which I ask your attention is one on which many persons more competent than I am have spoken. Many more have thought upon the subject, which is as trite as any with which college people and school people have to deal, and yet it is an important subject, for it is not necessary that a subject should be new in order that it should be important. The subject, in short, is the position occupied by the American college in what is sometimes, by courtesy, called our educational system. It is a subject on which I am sure you have all thought a great deal. I have been thinking about it ever since I have had anything to do with colleges; and, while I have not reached a final conclusion, yet I have noticed some things that ought to be remedied. To some of these things I wish to call your attention.

I have in mind what is generally spoken of as "raising the standard;" and I ask, first, what is meant by that expression? It means two things, or may mean two things, though it has come to mean mainly one. It means either increasing the amount of work required of students entering college, or in college; or it may also mean requiring better work, though it has come to mean mainly the first—requiring more work.

I shall not attempt to go into details upon this subject; it is so familiar that I can avoid details; but I wish to call your attention in a pointed way to the actual state of the case as it is to-day. I might almost rest the case after stating the evils we have to contend with.

In order that we may understand, however, certain matters, which are of importance, it will be well to go back some time, and inquire what the American college was many years ago, what ideas were in the minds of those who founded the colleges and who had to deal with those that were in operation at the beginning of this century. Of course, we shall not necessarily find an ideal college by going back a hundred years, but it will be well to inquire what ideas those founders had in mind when they founded these American colleges. It is not necessary to go back to the beginning; we can get an approximate idea of

* This report has been prepared by the speaker from the stenographer's notes. The address was not written, and, owing to the circumstances referred to in the opening remarks, there was very little time available for preparation. Some of the imperfections of the address are thus accounted for.

the actual state of things in the early part of this century by examining the catalogues of some of the prominent colleges. Let us see what these colleges required for admission in the early part of the century. I have taken a copy of the requirements for admission to Yale College in the year 1830 from the catalogue of 1830-31. In examining the catalogues from that year down to the present time, I find that there were periods in which there were no changes, and then would come periods of change. It is with the character of these changes that we ought to familiarize ourselves.

The requirements of Yale College then in 1830-31 were these: "Cicero's Select Orations, Virgil, Sallust, the Greek Testament, Dalzel's Collectanea Graeco Minora, Adam's Latin Grammar, Goodrich's Greek Grammar, Latin Prosody, Writing Latin, Arithmetic, English Grammar, Geography. No candidate admitted until he has completed his fourteenth year."

One who is accustomed to the higher colleges of the present day is sure to hear these words with a sneer. Hear also what the president of the college said in regard to the position which the college occupies in the educational system: "The object, in the proper collegiate department, is not to teach that which is peculiar to any one of the *professions*; but to lay the foundation which is common to all. There are separate schools of medicine, law and theology, connected with the college as well as in various parts of the country, which are open to all, who are prepared to enter on professional studies. With these the undergraduate course is not intended to interfere. It contains those subjects only which ought to be understood by everyone who aims at a thorough education. The principles of science and literature are the common foundation of all high intellectual attainments. They give that furniture and discipline, and elevation of mind, which are the best preparation for the study of a profession, or of the operations which are peculiar to the higher mercantile, manufacturing or agricultural establishments."

Contrast the requirements which I have read with those of the present time. I find in 1840, '41 and '42, the same requirements as in 1830; for a period of thirteen years, at least, there was no change.

The present requirements for Yale College are: (1) Latin Grammar; (2) Cæsar, Gallic War (books i-iv); (3) Cicero, Orations; (4) Virgil, Bucolics and six books of *Æneid*; (5)

Ovid, *Metamorphoses*, translation at sight ; (6) Translation at sight of passages from Latin ; (7) Translation into Latin of connected passages of English prose ; (8) Roman History ; (9) Greek Grammar ; (10) Xenophon, *Anabasis*, four books ; (11) Homer, *Iliad*, three books ; (12) Translation of Greek into English at sight ; (13) Translation of connected passages of Greek into English ; (14) Greek History ; (15) Higher Arithmetic ; (16) Algebra ; (17) Plane Geometry ; (18) French or German ; (19) English Literature.

Now it is clear, I think, that the persons who had to deal with colleges in 1830 had not the same object in mind as those who have to deal with the colleges of the present day. I have taken one college as an example, I could take others. Of course, it is always a difficult matter, in speaking of the American college, to define what one means. The American college eludes definition ; it means entirely different things in different localities. All that we can do is to keep in mind the average college, and even this is difficult. You will ask, "The average college where?" "The average college in what period?" The surrounding circumstances must be kept in mind in order to understand of what we are talking.

Whatever the shortcomings of these colleges may be, they all have certain ideals ; some of them set the pace, and the others are trying to catch up ; so that we must look to the college that is at the head of the list and inquire what the ideals of that college are—what it is trying to do—and we shall find out what the other colleges are trying to do. Now this raising of the standard, in the sense of requiring more work for admission to college, has been going on year after year until matters have reached such a pass that many are asking whether it has not been overdone ; and whether the best thing we can do is not to turn back? In order to make clear the thoughts that lead to these queries, let us see what the actual state of the case is in reference to the individual ; for, after all, the college was made for the boy, and not the boy for the college. I suppose this is true, though I think we often forget it. I suppose we must try to fit the college to the boy, though the opposite seems to be the task in which many persons are engaged. We must not have a boy in mind who does not exist, but think of the boys we have to deal with and see what we can do with them.

The actual state of the case is this: It has been found that the average age of entrance to the leading colleges is between

eighteen and nineteen, and therefore the average age of graduation is between twenty-two and twenty-three. Now I must confess that every time I hear that statement, it seems more startling. We are striving in every way to get the boys to go to college, yet we have the fact staring us in the face that the boys cannot get through college until they are twenty-two or twenty-three years old on the average. Is that as it should be? It seems to me that it is clearly wrong. What is the boy going to do after he gets through college? Is that the end of all things for him? The college is but the beginning, not the end of anything. If he is going to study a profession, what must he do? Take that of medicine, for example: the young man is advised, "Go to college before you begin the study of your profession." "When shall I get through?" "Well, some time between twenty-two and twenty-three." "Then what?" "You will begin the study of medicine." "How long will that take?" "That will depend upon where you go. It may take two or three years or even four years." If that is a young man of ambition, a young man of the kind we ought to have in mind, he will say, "I want to go to the best one I can find." To which we answer: "You will have to go to one of those having the longest course; those are generally speaking the best and most advanced." "That will take four years?" "Yes." "I shall be twenty-six or twenty-seven before I get my degree?" "Yes." "Then I am ready to begin the practice of medicine?" "Hardly; you will be ready then to begin to get your experience—to go to a hospital—to go to Europe for a year or two, and by the time you are about thirty, you will be ready to settle down to practice." A young man who wishes to take advantage of the best methods of instruction will find, if he is to study medicine, that he cannot hope to begin the practice of medicine under twenty-seven or twenty-eight years of age. Perhaps this is entirely satisfactory. It does not seem so to me. The same remarks apply to other professions—we cannot go into details in regard to them. There is the same tendency in all the professional schools—to get more out of the students. In every school, whether of theology, law, or medicine, the same thing is heard. Then suppose a young man wishes to take higher work in the sense in which that expression has come into use; he wants to do graduate work. This cannot properly be taken up until after the college course, so that here also we find, that those

who undertake such work are handicapped by the long preliminary training we require of them.

If the individual is to go into business he is advised again "by all means go to college. You will never regret it. You must go to college." Then he begins to prepare for business, at the age of twenty-two or twenty-three. I have heard those who are in business express themselves very vigorously upon this subject. Though there are others who say, "Let them get their education, they will make better progress for having a thorough education."

I have to deal with the question mainly as pertaining to the professional work—the higher studies of those who undertake such work ; and I have endeavored to state the case as it is. I ask again, Is this as it should be, or is there something wrong in the system? I have long entertained the thought that there is something radically wrong. I find the same feeling very commonly expressed, and it is difficult to find a college man who does not accept the general proposition that the age of entrance is too high. This carries with it the conclusion that the requirements are higher than they should be. The question will suggest itself—Why is it that we are constantly pushing forward, trying to get more and more from those entering college, and more from those graduating from college? This is a very difficult question to answer. There are no doubt many causes at work, and it is impossible for any one to determine exactly what all of these are ; but one of the principal causes is, I believe, the influence of Germany upon those who have to deal with educational matters in this country. The way in which that influence is felt is well-known to many of you, but, for the sake of others, permit me to state my view of the case.

During the last half-century, and more, many of the graduates of American colleges have gone abroad, more especially to Germany, to follow higher courses. Some of these have become expert in the methods there in vogue, and have come back home with the hope of introducing something of that which appealed to them in the foreign country. They have desired to raise something to the grade of the German university, and, finding nothing else to work upon, they began upon the college. They carry with them the notion that the American college is the equivalent of the German university, or if it is not, that it should be.

So they have been coming here for many years and bringing these ideas into the country and working with them, and

working on the American college, until they have changed it radically from what it was, trying to convert it into something that it was never intended to be. We find as a consequence of these efforts, that many of the university methods have been introduced into the college, and I am afraid that these methods are wide-spread among the colleges. I hear with great alarm from those who tell me of their experience—of things that they are doing—that lead me to think, and sometimes to say, things quite inappropriate to this occasion. I fear that we here are partly responsible—at Johns Hopkins University. The authorities cannot be blamed for this. Those who have received their training here have carried with them something of that same feeling which the students in Germany have, and have gone out in the same spirit with the desire to reform everything with which they come in contact, and especially the college. They learn to respect the methods by which they have been benefited, and what more natural than to think that the application of the same methods to the students given to their charge will also be beneficial? And so we find the machinery of the university transplanted to the college. I have heard of some remarkable results. I notice that in some colleges the “seminar” and the “journal meeting” have found their way, to the great satisfaction of the professors. The most recent case of the kind that I have heard of, is one that came to me, let me confess it in shame, from one of my own students, a very bright fellow. He wrote me that he required of those who received their degree from the college in which he was teaching, a thesis based upon original work. What next? There is nothing next. That is the end.

Everything, whatever it may be, of benefit in the university, has been tried in the college; but it is curious how long experiments may be tried before they are found out to be failures. I feel that these experiments will end in failure, and that they are at present doing positive harm to students who are called upon to go through with these operations. They cannot satisfactorily do the work required of them and must go on in a bungling sort of way without accomplishing the results which the teacher desires. The influence of Germany then, I believe, is one of the principal influences that have been at work in the direction indicated.

Now, how is all this to be remedied? This is a more difficult question than any I have thus far asked, and attempted to answer. Of course, if we could all get together and agree

that these propositions, that I have laid down, are correct, and then, having agreed to that, should say, "We will do what we can to remedy the difficulty," some progress could be made. But there is, I believe, a difference of opinion in regard to the propositions. I do not come in contact with those who hold the opposite opinions, but there are those, I think, who, with great emphasis, would express disagreement with what I have said. If, then, those who believe there is something radically wrong, would be willing to get together in some way and talk it out, and then agree to exert their influence to overcome the difficulties which now exist, something would be accomplished in the long run. Most universities and colleges are following the lead of other universities and colleges—they are doing things because these things are being done in other institutions. This is, indeed, often the strongest argument advanced for making a change. I have heard it advanced here among my own colleagues. I have made use of it myself. How many measures have been adopted on the strength of that single argument? Now, I have indicated in a rough sort of way what might be done. It doesn't amount to much; but one thing will help us. Let us work persistently; let us use our influence on every occasion, to keep clear the distinction between the university and the college; let it be known that there is a difference, and that we recognize the difference; let us act as though we recognized the difference, and not confuse the conceptions, and act as though the conceptions were confused.

What then is a university in contradistinction from a college? That question has been answered by many during many years, and yet no final opinion has ever been reached. But there seems to be a strong tendency at the present time in a certain direction, and one which I hope will be followed. In order that we may see what some of the ideas are that have been advanced on this subject, let me read first a quotation from a letter written by President Dwight, of Yale College, in 1816, in answer to a circular sent out by Governor Nicholas, of Virginia. The Virginia Legislature was then taking steps toward the establishment of a university, and Governor Nicholas sent out a circular letter to the principal educators in the country, to which President Dwight sent this answer:

"There are two difficulties in the way of returning such an answer as is in all probability expected. One is, that the circular does not at all explain the specific views of the Virginia Legislature. The literary institutions which are mentioned in

it, are so extremely different in different countries as often to have very little resemblance to each other. A *university* in *European language* is, as your Excellency perfectly well knows, a seat of education in which students are conducted through all the branches of academic and professional knowledge, so as to be fitted to enter upon the practice of medicine, or to appear at the bar, or in the desk, without any additional instruction. A *college*, in the same language, is sometimes one of the several institutions which, when combined, constitute the university, and sometimes a seminary in which students barely obtain the requirements for admission to the university. *Eton College* and the *celebrated school of Westminster* are seminaries of this nature. In *American phraseology*, your Excellency must have observed, both these terms are used in a widely different manner. There are three seminaries in *New England*, which are styled universities; a fourth in *New York*; a fifth in *Pennsylvania*; a sixth in *Georgia*; and a seventh in *Kentucky*. All these differ essentially from what is meant by the term in *Europe*; and in none of them is education given to the extent specified above. That of *Cambridge in Massachusetts*, approximates nearer to the *European* standard than any of the rest; but even that falls materially short.

"There are also in *New England* five colleges; and many others which bear the name in different parts of the United States. In *Yale College* there is, probably, more *science* taught than in any other seminary in the American Union; but probably less of *literature* than in the University at *Cambridge*. Yet it is styled a *college*."

You will see that there is a very honest, straightforward attempt to distinguish between these two conceptions, university and college; and, you will see that it is not satisfactory to President Dwight. He says he cannot tell what is meant by the term university. It would be entirely beyond the province of this address, to enter into a discussion of the development of the conception of the university in this country. Let me then pass rapidly on. President Gilman, prominent among those who have frequently dwelt upon the distinction between the college and the university, in a sharp, clear way in many places, has spoken on the subject, and has often written upon it. I read a quotation from one of his writings, in which the matter is treated briefly and to the point:

"The college is understood to be a place for the orderly training of youth in those elements of learning which should

underlie all liberal and professional culture. The ordinary conclusion of a college course is the Bachelor's degree. Often, but not necessarily, the college provides for the ecclesiastical and religious, as well as the intellectual training of its scholars. Its scheme admits but little choice. Frequent daily drill in languages, mathematics and science, with compulsory attendance and repeated formal examinations, is the discipline to which each student is submitted. This work is simple, methodical, and comparatively inexpensive. It is understood and appreciated in every part of this country.

"In the university more advanced and special instruction is given to those who have already received a college training or its equivalent, and who now desire to concentrate their attention upon special departments of learning and research. Libraries, laboratories and apparatus require to be liberally provided and maintained. The holders of professorial chairs must be expected and encouraged to advance by positive researches the sciences to which they are devoted; and arrangements must be made in some way to publish and bring before the criticism of the world the results of such investigations. Primarily, instruction is the duty of the professor in a university as it is in a college; but university students should be so mature and so well trained, as to exact from their teachers the most advanced instruction, and even to quicken and inspire by their appreciative responses, the new investigations which their professors undertake. Such work is costly and complex; it varies with time, place and teacher; it is always somewhat remote from popular sympathy, and liable to be depreciated by the ignorant and thoughtless. But it is by the influence of universities, with their comprehensive libraries, their costly instruments, their stimulating associations and helpful criticisms, and especially their great professors, indifferent to popular applause, superior to authoritative dicta, devoted to the discovery and revelation of truth, that knowledge has been promoted, and society released from the fetters of superstition and the trammels of ignorance, ever since the revival of letters."

Let me read one more quotation from an address which President Low gave two years ago at Swarthmore College—the presidential address which was then delivered before this association:

"If I am right, the difference between the college and the university is to a great extent, a difference in aim. The college aims, or should aim, to lay the broad foundation upon which

the university may build. The purpose of the college, otherwise stated, is to give a liberal culture. The purpose of the university is to develop the scholar, a man who may become the master of thought in his chosen field." And again: "I should say that the work of the college is to teach that which is already known; the work of the university is, in addition to this, to inquire, to ascertain around the whole circumference what lies beyond the line that marks the limits of the known."

These ideas so clearly expressed by President Gilman and by President Low are the ideas which seem to be taking hold; and I believe our hope for future success in college work and in university work is to be found in adherence to these general ideas. We must endeavor to avoid mixing up the college and the university. This mixing process as I have already pointed out is now going on extensively; and I believe—most earnestly I feel upon this subject—that it marks a movement in the wrong direction. I make an appeal for a backward movement, in so far as the requirements for admission to college are concerned, and, therefore, so far as the amount of work required of the college student is concerned. I believe a simpler course would give better results; I believe if students in the colleges were required to do less, they would do more. The boys fitting for college, thanks to the colleges, are kept in a state of mind that is indescribable; they get into an artificial state of mind with reference to the work they are doing; they raise the question in every instance whether the work they are called upon to do counts for admission to college, and anything else is of no value whatever—it is an absolutely artificial state of mind. The methods which are forced upon the school by the college, lead to the development of a certain state of mind which interferes with the best work to be done by the student after he gets into the college.

Now, in conclusion, what is the objection to having students turned out from college at the age of twenty-two or twenty-three? I think every one will see, that it is objectionable for those who are going on with the study of professions. In addition to the reasons already stated, it should further be borne in mind that, he who is going to study a profession is not as well able to take up that study at the age of twenty-two or twenty-three as he would have been at an earlier age. Ask those who have to deal with professional students what they think about it, and you will find that they say they would

like a chance to get at them earlier, while their minds are plastic, while they can work more satisfactorily. That impressionable period is very fleeting, and, indeed, keeping a young man with his mind upon this rudimentary work until he is twenty-two or twenty-three destroys a certain power, or interferes with its development, in the same way that keeping a child too long at its mother's apron strings affects the younger mind. Many other statements might be made bearing on this subject, all pointing to the same conclusion. I cannot believe there are two opinions in regard to it. Then, if it is wrong that students should be kept in college until they reach that age, what must we do? Give up the college, or, modify the college? There are no two opinions in regard to that, the college should be modified; we should move backward rather than forward; we should give up the general idea that we must always be "raising the standard." Let us rather try in a sensible way to lower the standard.

On motion the thanks of the association were tendered Professor Remsen for consenting to fill the place on the program made vacant by President Patton's inability to be present. Convention adjourned to meet at 9.30, Saturday morning.

The remainder of the evening following Professor Remsen's address was spent at a reception tendered the association by the Johns Hopkins University, in McCoy Hall.

SATURDAY MORNING SESSION, DECEMBER 1.

Convention called to order at 9.30 o'clock, in Levering Hall.

President GILMAN:—Two gentlemen have come this morning who have not been taken into the association. They are well known to us all; if it is in order, I should like to present Dr. William T. Harris, and ex-Governor John W. Hoyt, who is greatly interested in the promotion of the idea of a National University. I move that all the privileges of membership be accorded to these distinguished visitors.

President Gilman's motion was seconded and unanimously adopted.

PRESIDENT of the Convention:—The first order of the day is a series of papers on general themes connected with the colleges. The papers are limited to twenty minutes, if you can reduce them without injuring their value, it would be well, as we have important business to transact. The first paper is by Mr. Talcott Williams of the *Philadelphia Press*.

On motion this paper was postponed for the purpose of taking up miscellaneous business.

The report of the Executive Committee was called for.

The committee not ready to make their report.

The Committee on Nominations reported through Mr. Dewey as follows :

Mr. DEWEY :—We have raised the number of representatives for fitting schools from three to four, recognizing the Woman's Colleges, giving them two representatives, one a woman. We have also avoided repeating the names that were on the list last year, of officers, with the exception of secretary and treasurer. The committee thought the old officers could do these duties better than new ones.

The list of nominations was read by Professor Dewey as follows :

*For President :—*Professor Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia College.

*For Vice-President :—*Professor Lucy M. Salmon, Vassar College ; President E. D. Warfield, Lafayette College ; Professor Bliss Perry, Princeton College ; Principal Isaac T. Johnson, Friends' School, Wilmington, Del. ; Dean John B. Van Meter, Woman's College, Baltimore.

*For Secretary :—*Professor John Quincy Adams, University of Pennsylvania.

*For Treasurer :—*Professor John B. Kieffer, Franklin and Marshall College.

*For Executive Committee :—*In addition to the *President, Secretary and Treasurer* of the association ; President D. C. Gilman, the Johns Hopkins University ; Dean N. Lloyd Andrews, Colgate University ; Dr. James C. MacKenzie, Lawrenceville School, New Jersey ; Dr. Julius Sachs, Collegiate Institute, New York City.

President GILMAN, of Johns Hopkins University :—I was not aware that my name would be suggested for any office, I ask to be excused. The chairman should be one who can give a great deal of time and thought to the work ; I should be glad if you would substitute some other name than mine.

Mr. DEWEY :—None of the gentlemen knew their names would be on this list. We put on men from whom we thought we could get the most work. We thought a little time from President Gilman would be of great benefit to the association, and we hope he will remain on the committee.

The report was accepted on motion duly seconded and carried, and the officers elected by acclamation.

The next thing in order was the report of the Auditing Committee.

The report was read by the chairman of the committee.

(See end of volume.)

On motion this report was adopted.

Treasurer KIEFFER, read this special report as follows :

(See end of volume.)

CHAIRMAN :—Dr. McGill desires to bring before the association a matter.

Dr. MCGILL :—Mr. Chairman, I have a subject on my mind, it has been on my mind for eight years. When this association was organized it was for new purposes ; one, to enable different institutions to perform their work to the best advantage without interfering, one with another ;

another that this should be a harmonious body because its deliberations were always to be advisory and not compulsory; another to prevent colleges from presuming to control the university, and another what I have to present this morning. Professor Remsen saved me a good many minutes; he understands the subject much better than I do, and naturally he covered the ground in a very admirable manner. The difficulty is that the college attempts to resolve itself into a university; preparatory schools interfere with the colleges by keeping back the classes one, two and three years; the universities are interfering with the work of the college by admitting undergraduate classes. I do not find fault with this; it comes as a result of circumstances, and I don't propose to do anything in the matter of making any change in these respects, but to do something. I offer two resolutions referring this whole subject to a committee of ten to report next year, when the entire matter may then receive full consideration of the entire body.

The resolutions are as follows:

Resolved:—That a Committee of Ten, representing the three classes of institutions belonging to this association, be appointed by the chair, to report at our next annual meeting a proposed minimum grade of an institution hereafter to be admitted to our list of preparatory or high schools; the minimum grade which shall entitle an institution to be admitted to our list of colleges; and the minimum grade which shall determine the admission of an institution to our list of universities.

Resolved:—That this committee be further instructed to consider and report at our next annual meeting whether the time has not come for this association to recommend most earnestly that each of the three classes of institutions represented in our body should, as fast as such a course may be found practicable, be placed under separate management; the preparatory schools not aiming to do college work by attempting the preparation of students for any but the Freshman class of the college; the colleges not carrying, as a part of their work a preparatory school, on the one hand, nor aiming to imitate university methods on the other; and the universities, in like manner, not touching upon the work of colleges, by admitting undergraduate classes.

Dr. MCGILL:—I think this organization was established for the purpose of holding up the idea of a complete national system, including all the different institutions from the very lowest to the very highest, all doing their own separate and individual work, and doing it all the better for not attempting to do the work of any other grade.

Motion seconded.

A DELEGATE—It occurs to me to ask whether the consideration of that proposition had not better take place after the morning discussion? It may very likely run in this channel.

Dr. MCGILL:—I think that may be true and I apologize for introducing it at this time, but I find it impossible to remain through the discussion.

By common consent the consideration of these resolutions was postponed until after the discussion.

The order of the morning was resumed.

Mr. TALCOTT WILLIAMS, of the *Philadelphia Press*, read the following paper, on the subject, "*The Future of the College.*"

By the "Future of the College" is, I assume, meant the future of the college as a separate institution apart from preparatory work on one hand, and from professional work on the other. The original invitation which I received spoke of the future of the "small," by which I assumed was meant the detached colleges, distinguished from the college which is an integral part of a university.

In discussing the work and future of these two classes of colleges, it is indispensable to know something of the field from which they draw their students and the changes in this field in the past twenty-five years. I say twenty-five years because it is now twenty-nine years since the close of the war and the past quarter of a century may be accepted better than most periods of equal length as a new epoch separated by many changes and alterations in public and private life, in social and political conditions from the years that went before. History has no dividing lines. Period shades into period. This is as true in education as elsewhere. Much error springs from seeing boundaries where none exist. Still, taking this period, since the war and beginning it *circa* 1868, two questions need to be answered.

Are the separate colleges—and I mean by this institutions isolated from professional work and standing alone in rural sites or lesser cities—are these colleges drawing a larger or smaller share of their attendance from their immediate neighborhood, which for my purpose I define as a radius of twenty-five miles.

Second. Are these colleges, first as compared with the larger institutions in their own field, and second, with the larger New England colleges, drawing a larger or a smaller body of students? In other words, are they becoming more or less local in the character of their attendance and are they advancing or falling behind in their competition with institutions more conspicuous, more heavily endowed and in consequence of the development of our system of transportation and the increase of wealth, more accessible to students both in the Middle States and in the New England States?

If the annual fall crop of college students were followed with anything like the care of the annual fall crop of cotton bales, or the monthly production of pig iron or the weekly shipments of boots and shoes or daily stock rates or any other of a score of products which to me, a mere newspaper chronicler of the affairs of the land, seem much less important than the yearly

yield of college students, it would be possible to answer this question instantly and with reasonable accuracy, say with a variant of error of two or three per cent. A tax of about a dime a student would furnish every college with an annual return, showing how many boys were fitting for the higher education, classical and scientific, and where, how many went on or fell out, and how they were distributed geographically, so that every college president would have there turns as to his high calling, which the modern merchant and manufacturer deems indispensable in his money-getting and would know, first what raw material was preparing in his natural feeding ground, territorial and personal, referring here both to adjacent neighborhood and schools naturally contributing, and centres and families influenced by alumni, where this raw material went and whether the college whose priceless work he is controlling and directing, was getting the same share as in the past, drawing ahead or falling behind. In addition, and no less important, students of our national education could watch the movement of the fall college crop with the same accuracy and intelligence with which for ten years past, for instance, we have been able to follow the transfer of the cotton production to Texas, the change from anthracite to coke in pig iron, or the concentration of sugar refining in a few refineries. While some private and spasmodic attempts have been made to answer these questions, they are few and disconnected. A number of colleges give the distribution of their alumni, but none that I know has published for a series of years a table giving the source from which its students have been drawn. Outside of New York no State collects these facts. Yet if we had to-day a return giving for fifty years past the number of college students, what a priceless record it would be of the distribution of the demand for higher education, of its flow, and in some cases ebb, of the effect on the appetite for a college education in different communities of different systems of State and local education !

In the absence of any such ordered statistics, I have endeavored to compile a few comparative facts in answer to the three questions already stated. Inevitably, they are incomplete, inadequate and involve much statistical confusion in adding and comparing quantities not precisely similar. "College" is a word of many meanings. "College student" stands for very diverse qualifications. Yet rude as these comparisons are, and they are presented as only average and general approximations, they seem to me at least better than nothing ; better

than mere theory and argument about this issue, based on vague, personal impressions.

The United States Bureau of Education in its report for 1890-91 gives 102 "colleges" for men only or both sexes in the States of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland and Ohio. The varying grading, classing and arrangement of these colleges, renders any comparative statement between past and present attendance, and the past and present geographical distribution of their students difficult. At the same time, without some comparison, it is impossible to discuss intelligently the past development or present condition of these institutions, particularly of the lesser colleges. Taking the list published by the Board of Education as a basis, it gives 102 "colleges," with 1287 male and 87 female instructors, or 1374 in all, and 11,976 male and 2032 female students, or 14,008 students in all. Of these colleges, there are 46 with about two-thirds this attendance or in 1893, 9402 students and a like proportion of instructors or 1147, whose attendance in 1868 and 1893, I propose to compare. These institutions not only hold two-thirds of the total attendance returned as collegiate in the annual report of the Bureau of Education, they include a still larger proportion of what may be properly called college attendance. Of the remaining institutions (56) there are 15, six of them Roman Catholic from which I was unable to obtain any answer to my numerous circulars and imploring letters. These had in 1890-91, about a thirteenth of the collegiate attendance or 1065 students and 117 instructors. There are 23 Roman Catholic colleges. Of these 6 did not answer and only 9 of the remainder gave full lists of students, with residence. The 23 colleges, as given in the Report of the Bureau of Education, had in 1890-91, 210 instructors and 1912 students. The instruction of these colleges, while valuable and thorough at many points, does not admit of comparison with the normal American college. There are 15 colleges in regard to which I was able to procure facts only for 1893, but these had only 175 instructors and 1432 students. Add to this 9 high schools, military academies and 3 institutions devoted exclusively to training the Protestant Episcopal and Lutheran clergy, and nondescript institutions, including one university which enters in its catalogue the attendance on its kindergarten, and it will be seen that the 46 leading colleges of these States have all but a small fraction of their true college attendance. I may add that I have included Ohio because it is the State in which the

small college is most numerous and, while not ordinarily included in the Middle States, its relations are far closer with them than with the States to the West.

In comparing the attendance of these 46 institutions in 1868 and 1893, two serious difficulties arise. The qualifications for admission and graduation differ. Into these differences, I have made no attempt to enter. In my tables, I have given each institution and I must leave to others, such exclusion as may seem necessary. It is, I think, true, that in the 46 "colleges" no institution is included which would not in the ordinary use and acceptance of the term be accepted as giving a "college education," although the difference between the attainments required for a degree in the most and least advanced of the institutions included is undoubtedly equal to two or three years work. A more serious difficulty exists in the different place given to academic and scientific work. In the smaller colleges, these two orders of students are united. In Dartmouth, where they once were separated, they are now mingled. In Harvard, Yale, Columbia and Princeton, these two classes are kept distinct. Yet as every one knows, men are in the academic or college department in Harvard, who at Yale would be in the Sheffield Scientific School. In Cornell and the University of Pennsylvania, these two classes are inextricably mingled. While I would be glad to make an exclusively "college" comparison and with a mutual agreement among our colleges for a uniform plan of catalogue, this could be done; at the same time, the detached colleges feel the competition of both college and scientific courses. I have therefore included both in my tables; but have so separated and designated them that the college attendance can be traced by itself. In the tables I wish to add I have been aided, so far as account of names was concerned, by the valuable assistance of Mrs. Henry S. West.

These 46 colleges had in their undergraduate departments in 1868, 4779 students. In 1893, they had 9402 students. They had just doubled. In 1868, 2025 students were in a radius of twenty-five miles or 42.21 per cent. In 1893, there were 3983 students in this radius or 43.42 per cent. The proportion had not changed. Of these colleges, six—Johns Hopkins, University of Pennsylvania, Columbia, Princeton, Cornell and Adalbert form part of a group of professional schools. Including the attendance for 1877 for Johns Hopkins, and for 1868 for the rest, and these larger institutions had grown from 912 to 3480. They had all but quadrupled, a growth of 279.04

per cent, while the general attendance had doubled. In 1868, nearly one-half, 43.53 per cent, or 397 students were from twenty-five miles. In 1893, 1136 students or one-third, 32.35 per cent were from residences within twenty-five miles. The remaining 40 colleges had in 1868, 3867 students, and in 1893, 5922 students. They had not quite doubled, growing 52 per cent. In 1868, 1628 students or 41.87 per cent, say two-fifths were from within twenty-five miles, and in 1893, 2947 students or 48.43 per cent were from within this radius. To resume, in these forty-six colleges, the colleges collectively had doubled. The six big ones all but quadrupled, the detached institutions had grown one and one-half fold. The attendance within twenty-five miles for the larger and for the smaller was unchanged. Plainly while the six larger colleges are growing faster, the smaller in their growth are sharing with the larger in the widening area from which they draw their students. Moreover, if the 461 students in the collegiate department of the University of Pennsylvania, be increased by 222 of those not studying for a degree, the larger colleges have grown four fold and the smaller have grown one and one-half fold, while the proportion of local attendance will be unchanged.

Turning now to the New England colleges, Yale and Harvard, as university colleges, and Amherst, Brown, Dartmouth, Wesleyan and Williams, as detached colleges may be accepted as covering the New England field. These seven colleges had in their undergraduate departments in 1868, 2245 students and in 1893, 4974, including the scientific schools of Yale and Harvard. This is a growth of 121.11 per cent, say two and a quarter, in twenty-five years. The two university colleges grew from 1180 students to 3264, or 176.61 per cent, or two and three-fourths. The five smaller colleges grew from 1065 to 1710, or 62.13 per cent, not quite twice. In other words, in New England, where the college system may be assumed to be more completely developed, the detached college keeps up better with the university than in the Middle States. But when we come to analyze the source of this increase, it proves to a surprising degree to be due to the growth of a local appetite for college. This group of seven New England Institutions grew two and a quarter times in twenty-five years. Their attendance from within twenty-five miles grew nearly as fast from 599 to 1164, or 94.98 per cent. Both Yale and Harvard have a large part of their radius of twenty-five miles under water, but even with this the attendance within this limit grew

from 395 to 722, an advance of 327, or 82.79 per cent. The smaller colleges rose in this attendance from 204 to 442, an advance of just double, or 118.81 per cent, or twice more than their growth.

While these New England colleges ordinarily felt to be drawing away from the Middle States, have increased their attendance from these States, it is matched by a growth in the States. In 1868, the seven colleges I have mentioned had 350 students from New York, in 1893 they had 973, short of three fold. In the same period Cornell alone advanced its attendance from New York State, from 144 to 738. On the other hand, Rochester, Syracuse, Hamilton, Hobart, Colgate, Union, Columbia, College of New York and the University of New York, advanced their New York attendance from 1033 to 1877.

Taking Cornell, these nine colleges, Princeton and the seven New England colleges, and there were in 1868, 1558 students from New York. In 1893 there were 3809. Of this increase 623 had gone to New England colleges and 1628 to Cornell, Princeton and the seven New York colleges mentioned. Adding the attendance in other colleges and in this quarter century the college attendance of New York State over doubled, and the population grew from 4,100,000 to 6,200,000.

The summary of attendance in Pennsylvania whose population grew a little over one-half in 25 years, from 1868 to 1893, was as follows, attendance as will be seen growing twice as fast as population :

	1868	1893	INC.
Attendance in the State	1014	1720	706
Attendance in other Middle States	131	526	395
Attendance in New England States	89	213	124
	<hr/> 1234	<hr/> 2459	<hr/> 1225

Want of space prevents me from presenting like figures from other States.

Two deductions seem to be clear. First, the amazing value of large college endowments and large conspicuous colleges in stimulating the appetite for a college education. In a large sense, colleges, like Darwin's earthworms, create the soil in which they grow and in which I may add, pretty much all else worth having in society grows. Here is Harvard, after twenty-five years of national growth enlarging from 529 to 1636 students in twenty-five years, and at the end drawing two-thirds 69.73 per cent of its students or 1040 from the State in which it started, while in 1868, the proportion was 65.02 or 353 out of

529. Here is Yale in 1868 with 207 students out of 651 from Connecticut or 31.79 per cent, and after twenty-five years out of 1085 students in the college department, 223 or 25 per cent are still from Connecticut, and out of both departments 434 out of 1628 or the same proportion are from Connecticut. Here is Amherst, midway between these powerful competitors, with 104 students out of 250 from Massachusetts in 1868, or 41 per cent and in 1893, after twenty-five years in which as an alumnus I would have unhesitatingly said its proportion of students outside of Massachusetts had grown, with 150 out of 345 or 43 per cent. If this is true of institutions like these, is it not perfectly clear that the attendance on detached colleges must be created by their presence and would not exist without them? Is not their future growth and multiplication an absolute necessity, if a college appetite is to be created as strong as that which exists in Massachusetts and Connecticut? In short, in considering the future of the college as apart from the university, are we not apt to overlook the need of educating the community as well as the individual, and the necessity of scattering colleges so as to create by their influence the soil out of which college students will grow?

Second, turning from the community to the college, if colleges have, as these figures indicate, a local command over their attendance, so that a large part is due to place and they are sought, not because they are cheap or easy, but because they are near, is it not plain that standards could be raised and qualifications at entrance and for a degree advanced without the risk of losing students. Since locality counts for so much, students will rise to the standard of the college. Ought not then the detached colleges to unite in common examinations for entrance of an advanced standard? Is not this due on one side to the community they are educating and is not this safe on the other as far as their own attendance is concerned? Relying on the tendency of all college attendance to be local, competition being greatly reduced by even a moderate distance, can they not apply more rigorous standards with the certainty that while the education they give will improve, the attendance by which they are supported will not be lessened.

TABLE I.
ATTENDANCE ON SIX MIDDLE STATE UNIVERSITIES.

NAME OF COLLEGE.	Faculty.	Students. Whole Number.	Students within 25 Miles.	Delaware.	Maryland.	New Jersey.	New York.	Ohio.	Penn- sylvania.	Connect- icut.	Massa- chusetts.	New Hampshire.	Rhode Island.
MARYLAND— Baltimore, Johns Hopkins	1868 1893 7 66	1868 1893 35 123	1868 1893 22 91	1868 1893 0 0	1868 1893 28 100	1868 1893 0 1	1868 1893 0 1	1868 1893 0 0	1868 1893 0 3	1868 1893 0 0	1868 1893 0 1	1868 1893 0 0	1868 1893 0 0
NEW JERSEY— Princeton, College of New Jersey	1868 1893 16 70	1868 1893 264 906	1868 1893 44 64	1868 1893 3 10	1868 1893 17 33	1868 1893 98 231	1868 1893 31 221	1868 1893 4 51	1868 1893 53 287	1868 1893 0 9	1868 1893 1 10	1868 1893 1 1	1868 1893 0 1
NEW YORK— Ithaca, Cornell	1868 1893 32 147	1868 1893 251 1324	1868 1893 30 114	1868 1893 0 2	1868 1893 1 13	1868 1893 11 44	1868 1893 144 738	1868 1893 8 71	1868 1893 9 130	1868 1893 1 16	1868 1893 1 38	1868 1893 1 7	1868 1893 3 6
New York City, Columbia	1868 1893 18 23	1868 1893 50 147	1868 1893 231 207	1868 1893 0 0	1868 1893 0 0	1868 1893 12 23	1868 1893 175 166	1868 1893 1 1	1868 1893 0 0	1868 1893 1 6	1868 1893 2 0	1868 1893 0 0	1868 1893 0 0
OHIO— Cleveland, Adelbert	1868 1893 6 22	1868 1893 67 105	1868 1893 20 64	1868 1893 0 0	1868 1893 0 0	1868 1893 0 0	1868 1893 1 0	1868 1893 59 103	1868 1893 3 0	1868 1893 0 0	1868 1893 0 0	1868 1893 0 0	1868 1893 0 0
PENNSYLVANIA— Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania	1868 1893 14 79	1868 1893 148 461	1868 1893 141 365	1868 1893 1 13	1868 1893 0 3	1868 1893 11 25	1868 1893 1 3	1868 1893 0 2	1868 1893 134 394	1868 1893 0 0	1868 1893 0 2	1868 1893 0 0	1868 1893 0 0
Total	93 457	912 3480	397 1136	4 25	46 151	132 366	312 1298	71 229	199 815	1 32	2 53	2 8	3 7

TABLE II.

ATTENDANCE IN 1868 AND 1893 FOR

FORTY-SIX COLLEGES IN THE STATES OF NEW JERSEY, NEW YORK, PENNSYLVANIA, OHIO, MARYLAND AND DELAWARE.

NOTE.—Where a later year than 1868 is used, this is noted for the College in which this is the case, to wit in six cases. Under Johns Hopkins University both matriculates and non-matriculates are treated as members of the college department in the table and footings. In Rutgers, both the College and Scientific Departments are footed in the tables. In Cornell, the total is obtained by adding "Graduate Candidates for a Degree," 30, and "Seniors, Juniors, Sophomores and Freshmen," 1294, but excluding "Special Students," 79. In Columbia, the College Department and School of Mines are included but are given separately in analysis. In Rochester, Union and Syracuse, and in other Colleges only those studying for a degree are included. "Students for Music," and students for "etc." have been excluded whenever the catalogue gave a clue. The mastery of the Cryptic College Catalogue would be a useful elective in a complete School of Pedagogics. In the University of Pennsylvania, 683 students are given on page 48 of the catalogue as "undergraduates" in the college department. The tables below exclude in the list of students, pages 33 to 47, "Post-Seniors," "students not candidates for a degree," "in Biology" and "in Music," leaving 461 students included in the tables and analysis. C stands for College or Academic, S for Scientific; but this distinction is only made when the catalogue makes it. Throughout, "Special Students" as in Harvard are excluded. At best, or rather at worst, a table like this is but an approximation, better than nothing.

REMARKS.	Faculty.		Students Whole Number.		Students Within 25 Miles.		Delaware.		Maryland.		New Jersey.		New York.		Ohio.		Pennsylvania.		Connecticut.		Massachusetts.		New Hampshire.		Rhode Island.	
	1868	1893	1868	1893	1868	1893	1868	1893	1868	1893	1868	1893	1868	1893	1868	1893	1868	1893	1868	1893	1868	1893	1868	1893	1868	1893
DELAWARE— Newark, Del.	9	10	27	74	15	53	18	61	3	12	0	1	0	0	0	0	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
MARYLAND— Annapolis, St. John's College	9	12	15	98	7	33	0	1	13	77	0	3	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Baltimore, Johns Hopkins (1877)	7	66	35	123	23	91	0	28	100	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Westminster, Western Maryland	3	9	70	128	66	57	5	68	101	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
NEW JERSEY— New Brunswick, Rutgers	14	30	144	221	60	107	0	0	0	0	94	192	38	27	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Princeton, College of New Jersey	16	70	264	906	44	64	3	10	17	33	98	231	31	221	4	51	53	287	0	9	1	10	1	1	0	1
NEW YORK— Alfred Centre, Alfred University	79	25																								
Clinton, Hamilton	18	183	138	56	32		1	0	0	1	0	2	159	114	2	1	5	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Geneva, Hobart	7	16	59	76	18	17	0	0	1	1	1	0	43	56	7	0	5	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Hamilton, Colgate University	23	61	125	14	16		0	0	0	0	2	6	42	83	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
Ithaca, Cornell	32	147	251	1324	30	114	0	2	1	13	11	44	144	738	8	71	9	130	1	16	1	38	1	7	3	6
New York, College of City of New York (1871-72)	36	56	317	631	317	631	0	0	0	0	4	0	313	631	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

New York, Columbia	18 C 50 # 23	147 C324	140 C207 #331	•	6	2	12	23 42	135 C160 #175	O C I # I	O C I # I	O	I	O C I # 2	O	0	0
New York, University of City of New York (1871)	14	89	166	71	153	438	20	56	132	0	1	3	1	0	0	0	0
Rochester, Rochester University	18	107	146	48	96		1	88	120	0	1	5	0	0	0	0	0
Syracuse, Syracuse University (1872-73)	10	17	108	245	54	75	0	7	99	209	0	4	11	2	0	0	0
Schenectady, Union University	14	19	169	205	41	58	0	2	98	188	0	3	0	0	0	0	0
OHIO—																	
Akron, Buchtel College (1872-73)	7	12	7	82	5	46	0	0	1	3	6	79	0	0	0	0	0
Alliance, Mt. Union	7	9	180	115	79	63	0	0	0	1	143	95	27	14	0	0	0
Athens, Ohio University	9	24	52	90	27	63	0	0	0	0	48	89	1	0	0	0	0
Berea, Baldwin University	6	16	111	68	70	27	0	0	0	1	105	65	1	0	0	0	0
Cleveland, Adelbert	6	22	67	105	20	64	0	0	0	1	59	103	3	0	0	0	0
Delaware, Ohio Wesleyan University	10	26	229	471	54	143	0	0	0	1	6	105	0	0	0	0	0
Gambier, Kenyon	10	11	91	76	18	14	0	0	0	3	57	68	4	0	0	0	0
Granville, Denison (1869-70)	9	11	66	129	13	32	0	0	0	0	54	94	1	5	1	0	0
Hiram, Hiram	7	19	15	84	11	46	0	0	0	0	15	73	0	0	0	0	0
Marietta, Marietta	7	17	68	53	28	28	0	0	0	0	53	47	1	3	1	0	0
New Athens, Franklin. Students not classified	6	6	52	118	49	99	0	0	0	2	51	14	0	18	0	0	0
New Concord, Muskingum	5	12	98	68	76	54	0	3	1	3	62	0	4	0	0	0	0
Pennsylvania—																	
Oberlin, Oberlin	18	29	156	396	37	92	0	2	3	1	14	20	77	210	6	13	0
Oxford, Miami University	9	11	103	69	38		0	0	0	0	54	0	0	0	0	0	0
Tiffin, Heidelberg	5	11	71	93	42	43	0	0	1	0	61	83	2	1	0	0	0
Westerville, Otterbein	6	16	11	91	2	35	0	0	0	0	6	69	1	2	0	0	0
Pennsylvania—																	
Allegheny, Western University of Pennsylvania	11	12	33	148	31	128	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	31	141	0	0
Allentown, Muhlenberg	8	9	62	95	26	68	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Carlisle, Dickinson	8	15	98	173	30	57	9	3	22	13	5	10	0	3	2	0	0
Collegeville, Ursinus. † Not classified	7	12	148	54	77	28	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	146	50	0
Roston, Lafayette	20	28	183	285	39	84	2	2	5	7	29	60	5	11	4	5	130
Gettysburg, Pennsylvania	13	22	103	151	35	49	0	0	11	23	0	2	3	1	1	31	120
Haverford, Haverford	5	20	49	90	22	54	0	2	4	5	6	2	1	0	3	27	63
Laurelton, Franklin and Marshall	7	15	22	42	27	49	0	0	1	8	0	0	0	1	2	0	0
Lewisburg, Bucknell	4	13	70	146	19	43	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	60	81	0
Meadville, Allegheny	10	17	90	118	23	65	0	0	0	10	9	0	0	0	0	0	0
Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania	14	79	148	461	141	365	1	3	0	17	6	63	98	0	0	1	0
Swarthmore, Swarthmore	17	28	51	182	21	65	0	7	4	19	10	22	14	15	0	2	134
Washington, Washington and Jefferson	12	16	192	157	107		0	1	1	0	28	8	142	136	0	0	0
Totals	462	1147	4779	9402	2025	4683	43	108	188	436	318	721	1295	2954	915	1368	1145

* John Hopkins figures for 1877 instead of 1868, 12 matriculates, 43 not matriculates. In 1893 had 93 matriculates, 30 not matriculates.

TABLE III.

ATTENDANCE AT FIFTEEN COLLEGES OF WHICH ONLY ONE CATALOGUE
FOR 1893 WAS OBTAINED.

NAME OF COLLEGE.	Faculty.	Students Whole Number.	Students within 25 Miles.	Delaware.	Maryland.	New Jersey.	New York.	Ohio.	Pennsylvania.	Connecticut.	Massachusetts.	New Hampshire.
	1893	1893	1893	1893	1893	1893	1893	1893	1893	1893	1893	1893
MARYLAND—												
Chestertown, Washington . .	9	52	30	6	40	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
New Windsor, New Windsor .	7	15	4	0	8	0	1	0	4	0	0	0
NEW YORK—												
Canton, St. Lawrence	16	98	51	0	1	0	76	3	1	4	6	1
OHIO—												
Cincinnati, University of Cin-	20	201	195	0	0	0	0	191	0	0	0	0
cinnati	6	47	41	0	0	0	0	42	2	0	0	0
Findlay, Findlay	16	72	50	0	0	0	0	68	2	0	0	0
Scio, Scio	10	123	57	0	0	0	1	96	4	0	0	0
Springfield, Wittenberg . .	6	22	9	0	0	0	0	13	1	0	0	0
Wilberforce, Wilberforce . .	24	198	93	0	0	1	0	179	6	0	0	0
Wooster, Wooster	10	32	25	0	0	0	2	29	0	0	0	0
Yellow Springs, Antioch . .	10	34	26	0	2	0	0	0	31	0	0	0
Annville, Lebanon Valley . .	7	67	25	0	0	0	1	10	50	0	0	0
Beaver Falls, Geneva College	13	78	28	0	0	0	3	15	61	1	0	0
Greenville, Thiel	9	55	143	0	0	0	0	5	250	0	0	0
Grove City, Grove City . . .	4	22	10	0	1	0	0	0	21	0	0	0
New Berlin, Central Penn-	8	116	57	0	0	0	7	7	101	0	0	0
sylvania												
New Wilmington, West-												
minster												
Total	175	1432	844	6	61	1	92	658	515	5	6	1

IV.—LIST OF ROMAN-CATHOLIC COLLEGES.—TWENTY-THREE.

MARYLAND—

Baltimore, Loyola College.
Baltimore, Morgan College.
Ellicott City, Rock Hill.
Ellicott City, St. Charles College.
Mt. St. Mary's, Mt. St. Mary's.

Fordham, St. John's College.

New York City, College of St.
Francis Xavier.

New York City, Manhattan.

Suspension Bridge, Niagara Uni-
versity.

NEW JERSEY—

Newark, *St. Benedict.
South Orange, Seton Hall.
Vineland, *College of Sacred
Heart.

OHIO—

Cincinnati, *St. Josephs.
Cincinnati, *St. Xaviers.

PENNSYLVANIA—

Beatty, St. Vincent's College.
Loretto, St. Francis College.
Philadelphia, La Salle College.
Pittsburg, *Holy Ghost College.
Villanova, Villanova College.

NEW YORK—

Allegany, St. Bonaventure.
Brooklyn, St. Francis College.
Brooklyn, St. John's College.
Buffalo, Canisius.

TABLE V.
ATTENDANCE AT SEVEN NEW ENGLAND COLLEGES. 1868-1893.

NAME OF COLLEGE.	Faculty.		Students. Whole Number.		Students within 25 Miles.		Delaware.		Maryland.		New Jersey.		New York.		Ohio.		Penn- sylvania.		Connecti- cut.		Massa- chusetts.		New Hampshire.		Rhode Island.	
	1868	1893	1868	1893	1868	1893	1868	1893	1868	1893	1868	1893	1868	1893	1868	1893	1868	1893	1868	1893	1868	1893	1868	1893	1868	1893
NEW HAMPSHIRE—																										
Hanover, Dartmouth	16	31	312	347	35	65	0	0	1	0	0	0	10	11	4	3	3	1	0	137	71	120	149	2	2	
MASSACHUSETTS—																										
Amherst, Amherst	18	34	250	345	30	49	0	3	1	0	3	7	44	80	6	9	6	8	15	12	104	150	4	11	2	4
Cambridge, Harvard	22	162	529	1636	300	472	1	7	7	3	3	22	45	233	21	45	18	51	1	15	353	1040	13	32	5	16
Williamstown, Williams	14	32	173	316	21	49	0	0	0	0	10	6	59	131	8	20	4	10	5	14	44	85	2	8	1	0
RHODE ISLAND—																										
Providence, Brown	15	68	192	452	98	224	0	0	0	1	1	15	8	29	4	2	4	6	10	18	33	93	11	19	101	213
CONNECTICUT—																										
New Haven, Yale	53	195	651	1628	95	250	4	5	4	11	25	62	144	425	31	77	53	112	207	434	53	78	5	10	6	9
Middletown, Wesleyan	9	31	138	250	20	55	0	3	1	2	11	15	40	64	2	1	2	25	24	74	24	17	88	5	1	3
Total	147	553	2245	4974	599	1164	5	18	14	17	53	127	350	973	76	157	89	213	563	567	748	1534	163	234	118	247
Total, deducting scientific schools at Yale and Harvard	118	428	183	585	116	248	2	4	0	3	6	21	131	161	5	31	9	54	67	219	4	175	1	9	3	4
	2062	4289	581	916	3	14	14	13	47	106	239	812	71	126	80	143	196	348	744	1359	162	225	115	243		

President ISAAC SHARPLESS, Haverford College, read the following paper on the same subject :

THE FUTURE OF THE SMALL COLLEGES.

The institutions to which this paper refers are the colleges, mostly small, which are unconnected with professional or any considerable graduate departments. In 1890 they numbered about 295, and contained about 3400 instructors and 63,000 students. Of the latter, 22,500 were college students, there being an average of seventy-six to the college. Their productive endowments aggregated \$20,000,000, and they had 1,600,000 volumes in their libraries.

It will thus be seen that this class of institutions constitutes a factor by no means unimportant in the educational life of the country. Their place for the future seems somewhat undetermined, and even the propriety of their existence is denied by some.

By far the greater part originated in some denominational demand, hence their functions have been supposed to include the maintenance of certain religious and in nearly every case Christian expressions of belief.

Some were based on local pride, and though undenominational, have been too feebly endowed to expand into great institutions.

The decreasing intensity of denominational loyalty, which will probably continue, has weakened some. The greater equipment or cheapness of our large universities, and the greater honor attaching to their degrees have made the lives of others a continual burden. Many should and undoubtedly will become extinct as degree-giving bodies. Others favorably situated should probably coalesce, as their denominations conclude to work together, and the future may thus show a smaller rather than a larger number of these small independent colleges.

This process of reduction could be quickened by a continual agitation by such bodies as this for a better standard of degrees—not necessarily higher in published requirements, but more honest and reasonable and uniform. The classification of the small colleges is going on. The New York Regents have done their work of inspection and elimination in their own State. Signs are not wanting that Pennsylvania will follow, and this association could hasten the operation. In several of the Western States, by associated action, a minimum standard of

admission is expected of all colleges in good standing, and their equipment and resources are published. All this means a practical relegation of the very weak to innocuous desuetude, and a drawing together into a system of such as are worthy to survive.

But when all this is done there will still remain a number of institutions strong enough financially to live, and able with a reasonable patronage to give an equivalent for the fixed charges.

But will they receive a reasonable patronage? Is the drift to the larger institutions to be so strong as to make it necessary for even a strong small college to close its doors or descend to the position of a secondary school?

It is not necessary to think so. It is true there are many expressions, sometimes of satisfaction, more often of regret, concerning the supposed decadence and final disappearance of the small college. But it is seldom I believe that a small college which answers the reasonable demands of its students for instruction and healthful conditions of living is actually decreasing in size.

The small college of the future must not be a weak college. It must have a productive endowment approximating, at least, a half million dollars. It must have a definite function to perform and resist temptations to go outside of its sphere, and it must be absolutely honest and open in its dealings with its students and with the public.

For this sort of a college I think there will be students, and they will be gathered by the following incentives :

1. Loyalty on the part of alumni and friends, which can be evoked by a vigorous and honest institution. This sentiment is less effective now than formerly, because so many parents allow their sons to choose, and they go with the crowd to the larger university. But properly cultivated this will still be a potent factor in building up a college.

2. The religious sentiment associated with the college. This also is probably a weakening sentiment, but will remain operative to a strong extent in the case of most small colleges for a long time, and will not improbably revive. Indeed, it is not too much to expect, that the educated religious tendencies of the country will find their congenial home in the small college. There is a chance for that close intercourse and mutual influence between teacher and student, which if one

factor is strongly religious will tend to make the other religious also. A greater stress is laid on personal righteousness and doctrinal orthodoxy in a professor in a small college than in a large university. And if the conditions become sometimes narrow and burdensome to a scholarly officer, their existence has its influence on the sort of men who go there, and on the resulting type of student. More generally the requisition is only for a good life and an absence of positive influence away from Christianity, and men of catholic belief and honest confession can exert an influence at once liberal and reverent. The broad freedom, leading to orthodoxy or unbelief, tolerated and sometimes encouraged in large universities, does not generally find a place in the small college. This may be commendable or reprehensible in the opinions of different people, but there are and will be enough patrons in America who prefer tangible Christianity to the uncertain results of mingled influences, to maintain the small college for some time to come.

3. A belief in a better morality in the small colleges.

This may or may not be true, but many people will believe it. The boisterous doings at our large universities are much advertised and generally accepted. The smaller ones keep out of print to a much greater extent. As a matter of fact, I suppose that small college morality *is* better than large. A bad small college would be the worst place in the world, and there is reason to believe that such do exist, but on the whole, the intimate acquaintanceship among officers and students acts as a check upon gross immorality. This feature should be made the most of, especially in the Freshman year. Many a boy used to the strict regimen of home and school finds the liberties of college, so suddenly thrust upon him, too great to be borne. If well prepared on entering, he experiences such a release from the daily burden of recitation, that this check is also withdrawn, and before he has time to steady himself and know his associates, he is drawn into habits which he deeply regrets. He may and often does recover, but there is still a blight on his college career not easily removed. From this danger the small college can protect its Freshmen. It can personally interest itself through its officers in their welfare, and to some extent supervise their habits, without creating any feeling of detective oversight. It can see individual cases of declension in their early stages, and give the private word of caution and advice. A feeling of moral safety, largely justified by results,

will be an additional claim of the small college upon public regard.

4. Better sanitary conditions. The large universities are either in cities or make a good sized town of themselves. The small colleges are usually in the country. The great stretch of acres reaching right up to the college doors for games, for rides and walks, for drainage and pure water, will have a not inconsiderable influence with many parents.

Moreover each student can be physically advised and his life directed by the gymnastic officer in a small college. The great gymnasia of recent times are most imposing and to see the hundreds of students engaged in them at one time is inspiring. But the fifty per cent who do not go are living as they please. The small college can and should insist on a hygienic life, and secure it in the case of nine-tenths or more of its students. The games are not for the very few athletes alone, and of everything going on each student can be a part. A more uniformly complete physical product will be an attractive feature for the non-athletic or moderately-athletic parts of the community.

5. But besides all these and including some of them there is the fact that a few men with great minds and great hearts have a profound influence in the small college society. In the great dormitories of the universities, still more in the scattered boarding houses where live the students of the universities without dormitories, life is unnatural, and the proper influence of the great professor is largely reduced. The Freshmen hardly know him by sight. The upper classes meet him a few times a week in recitations and a few perhaps for a year or two receive the real inspiration of his life and character. But for the steady, permanent effect gained by four years' close intercourse, the stimulus to great deeds, the ambitions excited by the methods of work and habits of thinking of a really great man the public will assume the superiority of the small community living under social conditions which throw naturally together all the elements in extra class-room contact.

A recognition of their unfavorable conditions in this respect seems to be apprehended by some of the friends of the large universities. A "Students' Hall" at the University of Pennsylvania, designed to supply the lack of opportunities for social intercourse within the University, is now being erected on a generous scale; and no point was more pressed by Provost

Harrison in his modest and suggestive inaugural remarks than the necessity of providing for the "whole twenty-four hours of every day."

In the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for September, 1894, the late secretary speaks of the conditions at that great university as follows: "In the present state of affairs the college is imperfectly governed and student life is stunted and distorted. If by the formation of several colleges where there is now one, it became possible not only to govern students more successfully, but to encourage their natural grouping in dormitories, and around congenial dining tables, welcome gain would be made for the present, and a grave danger removed from the path of the future. . . . Buildings would take a form suitable to the joint accommodation of students and a professor's family; the dining hall might form part of the structure and a common room for study, reading or social meeting might break the barrack-like monotony of the dormitory of to-day."

There is no reason to suppose that these universities differ for the worse with others of their kind. They may be considered representative institutions—one without dormitories, the other with them. They both lack what the colleges of Oxford and Cambridge do give, and the small colleges of America may give—a healthy communal life which fixes its indelible stamp upon the habits and character of every student. Once get this idea properly before the college constituency and the days of prosperity for the worthy small college will arrive, for it can always supply what Secretary Bolles was aiming at better than a large university.

Roughly, there are three classes of small colleges. There are the weak and dishonest colleges. Many have not succeeded because they have not deserved to succeed. They are often poor, half-starved institutions forced by a cruel fate which called them a college or university, to maintain before the public claims which they cannot possibly make good. With the name has to come all the paraphernalia of universities, elective courses, multiform departments, alleged graduate work. They bolster up their teaching force with honorary degrees of their own creation. They deceive their students by extensive courses elaborately laid out and superficially taught; and these have a notion when they graduate that they have acquired all that the world has to give in the way of an education. They deceive the public by crafty announcements and a great and windy commencement. Such institutions

ought not to prosper, and they are reaping the just penalty of their misdeeds in diminished public confidence.

When we look carefully over the data which our Commissioner of Education has compiled, we have to confess sadly that the great majority of our small colleges if honest are very weak. Two hundred and seventy of the 295 have productive endowments of less than \$150,000 each. The teaching force and equipment of many are utterly inadequate and their collegiate students are very few. Were it not that I have an intimate acquaintance with a few institutions in various parts that make a very poor showing in these reports, and know how earnestly the few teachers work under discouraging circumstances, and know also what excellent results they achieve, I should be driven to confess that nine-tenths of our small colleges, even when honest, are pretentious failures. But many are not. The great excuse for their existence is, that they gather in from their locality and denomination a considerable number in the aggregate of young men and women who would never reach a large university. These are earnest, self-denying students when they would otherwise be louts or rowdies, and thus the average standard of American life is greatly uplifted. Even for those not students the college is a centre of elevating influences.

But all small colleges are not of these two classes. Of the above list there is a small number capable of doing really good work. They are well established, with a definite constituency and in a small way are just as sure of existence as the large universities. They have smaller resources but they have smaller needs. They are not especially trying to be large; their ambition is to be good so far as they go, and that ambition is just as dear to them as that of their more imposing neighbors who measure their prosperity by the hundreds of their student membership. They are usually striving to increase, for in America it hardly seems possible simply to stand still. If you tell them that another institution has hundreds where they have dozens, they are not greatly concerned. They miss the great numbers when they make up a foot-ball team, but are reassured when the next summer they send out even a score of graduates, of clean habits and accurate scholarship, full of zeal for a farther education which they will seek at a great university, or ready to take hold of the difficulties of practical life. Tell them their numbers are few and they do not hang their heads, for they believe that smallness is sometimes a virtue; but hint that

their degrees do not stand for honest scholarship, that they are sowing the wind and will reap the whirlwind, that they are useless members of the educational life of our country, and they will quietly ask you to suspend judgment till you know what they are doing.

The program which I would outline for the small colleges would be somewhat as follows: assuming first that the hopelessly weak are whenever possible annihilated by relegation to academic work, or coalescence with other institutions of the same rank:

1. Arrange a course in close contact with high schools and academies of the neighborhood. Admit on moderate but equivalent amounts of any two of the four languages, Greek, Latin, German, French, giving the degree of Bachelor of Arts to any who pursue *either* ancient language to the end of the Sophomore year.

2. Get rid of the preparatory department or separate it from the college in location and teaching force, so that the college may be a college undisturbed by a lot of children.

3. If unhappily called a university make apology for holding the title so long and give it up. Send students for graduate study elsewhere, except perhaps for special reasons in a few cases. Give no degrees but A. B., S. B., and A. M., and the latter only on examination.

Resist temptations to add technical departments unless a most ample endowment is provided for the purpose. This will not prevent good, practical, scientific teaching which will prepare for advanced standing in technical or professional schools.

4. Make the college life full, rich and interesting. Introduce outside lectures. Encourage entertainments of various sorts managed by the students. Give full scope to wholesome games and athletics, and have sanitary conditions perfect. Centre the interests of the students in and around the college and do not allow them to wander. Make all officers and students feel that they are important members of a corporate body, bound to stand by each other, and interested in everything which goes on. Do not keep low-lived students and foster practical religion by Y. M. C. A. or similar societies.

5. In selecting professors find men who will be loyal to the college idea, and have strong personality which they will wield in the college interests. If means are limited, have at least one or two very strong men. This is better than a full list of mediocre ones.

6. Be perfectly honest in published announcements. If not, the students know it, and we dare not set them a dishonest example. Advertise nothing we cannot do well, and do one or two things very well. A constituency will be found that will believe in such colleges.

The small colleges must have faith in themselves as small colleges. When I reproached a representative of a very weak institution in the West for calling it a university, he said that a college would do for the East, but the West must have the best of everything. A university is not better than a college, but different in function and in method, and if with every additional endowment, the small college moves universityward, it is disgracing itself and its class. We want to consolidate rather than expand. We want the universities to pass on out of our reach, and we will be glad to send them our best drilled, most ambitious men for special work. Their collegiate departments overlap our whole four years and determine our standard. As an illustration of this, Haverford College is almost necessitated to adopt a standard of admission nearly akin to those of the University of Pennsylvania and Princeton, because the three institutions draw their material from the same schools. But the small colleges must somehow stop raising their standards; and the universities should aid in the process. With the improvement in secondary education which the Committee of Ten and the general agitation of the subject will bring about, we ought to get from the best schools boys of sixteen or seventeen, and graduate them at twenty or twenty-one.

As a small college grows rich it should seek better professors and equipment, and have for its ultimate ambition, not to excel in numbers some other institutions, not to add professional and graduate departments, but to be the very best small college possible, and to produce those typical fruits of small colleges, conscientious and manly graduates, with a fair amount of accurate scholarship, and an unsatisfied desire for more.

President E. D. WARFIELD, Lafayette College, continued the consideration of the topic under discussion by presenting the following paper :

I am neither a prophet, nor the son of a prophet ; I am not a seer of visions, nor a dreamer of dreams ; I have not even a familiar spirit on whom I can call to draw back the curtain of the future and reveal to me the things that are to be. Pretending to no higher vision than is vouchsafed to others, I

purpose in this paper to examine some of the tendencies of college growth, inquire into the reasons for those tendencies, their advantages and disadvantages, and finally to suggest some things which are worth the striving after in the future development of the college.

In the first place let us frankly recognize that the college is a living organism. Like all vital forces it has laws of natural development, conditions essential to its growth, which are not theoretically evolved from any man's inner consciousness, but are the results of causes which must be investigated. Colleges have not been founded for the same reason everywhere. When founded they have not followed identical lines of development, not even the lines laid down for them by their founders. They have sprung from many motives. They have had purposes ecclesiastical, political, purely intellectual, broadly philanthropical, or have combined two or more of these purposes in a single foundation. Thus the development of many of our colleges has been conditioned by the purposes for which they were founded. Less consciously, but not less really, they have been influenced by the views of those who founded them, and the time when, and the place where they were established. The same ultimate object has taken a different practical shape in the hands of different men. One age does not use the same means as another, and one locality can not adapt itself to the usages of another.

The New England and the Southern mind have different roads to the same goal. The Eastern and the Western States have different ideals and standards of home training. The educational facilities of city and country are varied alike in form and efficiency. The result is that Yale and the University of Virginia, Princeton and Oberlin, Columbia and Lafayette, are the creatures of different conditions and can not be judged by a single standard, and neither can be, nor ought to be, reduced to a uniform system.

Individuality is as desirable in the college as in the man. To represent something, and represent it truly, is as important in institutions as in men. To form a great college trust, agree on identical entrance requirements, courses, and conditions of graduation, would rob our colleges of their vitality, and destroy the usefulness of the great majority. Competition, great as are the evils it entails, is the one condition of vigorous life. By it alone can a college know whether it is meeting the educational demand, by it alone can the college be driven to keep

pace with the progress of human thought in its protean courses. In all this the college but reflects the humanity of its founders, directors, benefactors and patrons. And in this lies the best guaranty of the future of the college.

So long as men are men, their educational ideas will differ, their early advantages will vary, and their intellectual abilities will demand dissimilar methods of instruction. To very many the instruction of youth is primarily a moral training. They regard the intellectual training as highly important, but yet as distinctly subordinate to the moral. To such men the college must be distinctly a school of morals, its object the making of men, its organization religious, its atmosphere spiritual. From this position there is a gradation through many shades of opinion to those who hold that the purpose of the college is purely intellectual, its principal purpose the equipment of men with special training for some vocation, its organization directed merely to secure thorough teaching in the branches demanded by the students, its atmosphere frankly materialistic, or, as the cant phrase puts it, practical.

Such differences in personal opinion in large things are reflected, also, in smaller things. One man believes that a small college brings the students into closer contact with the professors, develops the individuality of boys, secures more effective teaching. Another thinks the large college more representative in its composition, that it is the influence of man on man that produces the best result, and prefers a wide student influence, to a close professorial contact. Yet another unites the views of these two and prefers a small college for a backward boy, and a large one for a strong, able, aggressive spirit. Again the question of location as between city and country, of accommodation as between dormitories and boarding houses, and many other considerations of greater or less weight determine the patronage of colleges now, as they did a century ago, as they will a century hence.

Such differences of opinion, entrenched as they are in church and other affiliations, deepened as they are by the loyalty of the alumni to their *alma matres*, is the best guaranty of the permanence of the so-called small colleges in the face of the aggressive spirit of a few so-called great universities, which are really colleges in the transition stage, neither all tadpole, nor quite frog.

As it appears to me, there are two questions for our colleges to answer, and on the answer to these questions their

future depends. First, do they mean to be colleges—and colleges only; secondly, do they mean to strive after university development?

It is the fad of the day to insist that an institution ought to be one thing, and only one thing at a time. This is very good advice, but it is not always practicable. You have seen boys who were being boys with all their might, yet their trousers were steadily resisting the law of gravitation and climbing up their shanks. It was necessary for them to grow in order to live. So it has been with our colleges. They have had to grow with the demand for larger and better educational facilities, and I cannot see that there is any valid reason why a well-tested institution should not grow up into a higher class.

Historically, the course which is emphatically the college course, that is the course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Arts, is a part of the university, is, indeed, the indispensable part of the university. The abnormal part of American university history is the development of separate professional schools of law, medicine, and theology, without a fundamental course in arts. Though abnormal, this needs no further justification than is found in the real public demand, which once existed and which yet exists in a certain degree.

Our colleges began with the work which was crying out to be done. They did it as well as the circumstances of each decade permitted, and they pressed forward steadily to a higher standard and a larger scope. They earned the confidence of the people and are the proper leaders in the work of giving America universities worthy of comparison with the best of Europe. In the processes of development they have fallen under many and various influences from without; England, Scotland, France and Germany have at one time and another profoundly impressed their national ideas on our educational progress. The highest praise our colleges deserve is that they have been robust enough to assimilate such foreign infusions without violence to their individual and national character. Though still under the shadow of German dominance, there is daylight enough to see a safe and sure deliverance from the once threatening danger of slavish imitation of German models.

The distinct character of many of our colleges as institutions instructing only in the branches leading to the degree of Bachelor of Arts, led to the formation of an American ideal of three terms in the educational progression, the school, the college and the professional school, in opposition to the historical

European type of school and university, the latter embracing two degrees at least. But in America there were a number of forces uniting to produce this result. First, the earlier custom of pursuing professional studies under a preceptor; which in time led to the forming of professional schools in cities where law courts and hospitals gave greater facilities for instruction than the country towns, which were the seats of the colleges, afforded. Secondly, the paucity of schools and the common custom of ministerial tutoring as the only college preparation in many parts of the country, gave a definite, uniform and low standard for college entrance examinations. And thirdly, the college, especially because of the low standard of admission and the clerical influence, was not more a distinct institution of higher education than a place for the inculcation of morals. The two marks of the old world, post-renaissance universities, the freedom of teaching and learning, and the *studium generale*, were lost in a fixed curriculum and a hard and fast dogmatic discipline. That these things were so was due less to the narrowness of vision of the teachers, than to the lack of funds to supply a large teaching force, and to the demand of the public who patronized the colleges. Yet, more, the new education had not been devised, the new scientific disciplines were unknown, and there was no demand for anything outside the old humanities. As a matter of fact, American colleges outran the English universities in adopting new ideas and methods, and have, so far as the undergraduate work goes, rivaled the world in liberality of thought, if not in depth and system.

In nothing is the American method more clearly seen than in the adoption of polytechnic schools into the college organization. As a feature of university growth this is an anomaly. The mediæval university had for its model four faculties, the fundamental faculty of arts and those of law, medicine and theology. The polytechnic was a posthumous child and was not admitted to share the inheritance. The American college took it in, generally as a distinct school, treated its students, though pursuing professional studies, as undergraduates, and introduced a singular paradox into its educational councils. The polytechnic callings ignore, as no other professions do, the ideals of the elder college. Humanism, with its culture and its disciplines, is an offence unto them. With a minimum of preliminary study and a maximum of purely technical training, resting on an intellectual basis almost exclusively developed through mathematical training, these callings

are content to take their candidates from school at a very early age and draft them into actual work while still immature. The union with colleges of the older type has been of some value in keeping the importance of a general training before the students of these professions, and imposing restraints upon their youth and inexperience, more usual in colleges than professional schools.

If colleges can be justified in co-ordinating with their original work such polytechnic work, surely they are much more justified in gradually enlarging and enriching their courses, in adding training for pedagogical purposes in the master of arts course, and in developing new studies in the higher humanism of the scientific renaissance of the nineteenth century. If, also, they are able to affiliate or create professional schools of the older type, who are so fit to do so as they?

The conditions under which these things should be done are, however, these : First, there should be no sacrifice of thoroughness to expansion ; second, the expansion should be in response to an actual, tangible demand ; third, there should be sufficient financial support to make the development sound and real. There have been many instances where colleges have rushed into university work to the ruin of their legitimate and already existing courses. Paper universities are to be frowned on. Ability, not advertising, makes collegiate success. Success to the college that can and does go on to true university development.

The great majority of our colleges, however, owing to their location and other limitations, must remain colleges, and colleges only. The danger to them in many cases is lest they cater too freely to patronage, and fall back in the race for precedence into mere academies. The policy of success for the average college is to be a college and to concentrate all its strength on real collegiate work. In order to do this, a high, consistent, and yet reasonable, entrance standard must be maintained. Mere technicality in examinations is a suicidal policy. Anything short of a real test of fitness for college work is equally bad. Where the line is to be drawn must depend on local conditions. A college cannot demand more than the schools which feed it can supply. A college can and must, on the other hand, demand the best its schools can give, and should hold up its feeders to their best work.

The college, in the second place, must supply such training as its patrons demand. It may secure the requisite variety by

distinct courses, or by a broad elective system. The method is of minor importance if the end be attained.

The college, in the third place, must justify its existence by the results it attains. "By their fruits ye shall know them." The patron cares more for results than methods. The pedagogical value of methods must be seen in the graduates. Just here is where great injustice is often done colleges. Results are dependent on the materials employed. Some colleges have been peculiarly fortunate in the material they have had to work on. Most small colleges have less varied material than the larger colleges, and usually produce more even results, and their work seems therefore less brilliant, but more satisfactory.

These results are dependent on the free use of all the proved essentials of educational work. These we may briefly summarize as first sound pedagogical principles. By whatever method, under the protection of whatever patron saint, mental discipline must be gained. The student must learn to think clearly and express himself cogently. In order to this certain methods of work must be fully mastered. To the old methods of linguistic and mathematical science, the new methods of scientific experiment and research must be added. The student, in short, must not only learn to think for himself, but learn to investigate phenomena and provide himself with the true data for the mental processes, which he is taught to pursue. Hence, the necessity of the laboratory. The laboratory, not merely in chemistry, physics and biology, but in history, politics and sociology, etc., etc., etc.

Over and above these matters of discipline and method, the college owes it to itself to give its students a broad outlook on life. To secure this a firm hand on the system of studies is needed. It is necessary that some regulative force should hold in check erratic natures, stimulate the sluggish, and correct the narrow vision of the premature specialist. In order to determine the golden mean between the dogmatism of authority and the anarchy of unrestrained choice, the mature judgment of those, trained in the various ways now being tried, will be needed. It seems probable that in such matters we are on the eve of a conservative reaction.

Whatever we may expect or hope for, the only sure reliance is a well-regulated public opinion, which will only ask what is wise. For this the public must be educated. The colleges must not only teach undergraduates, they must form and inform public opinion. They can do this in many ways, among others

through such organizations as this. Let us strive wisely and prudently to consult from year to year, how we can advance the efficiency of our colleges, and to bring the popular judgment into line with our sanest and calmest, but yet most vigorous, views.

President M. W. STRYER, Hamilton College, read a paper on the same topic.*

Professor EDMUND J. JAMES, University of Pennsylvania, opened the general discussion.*

The secretary announced that President Richards could not be present and moved that Professor James have the floor for four minutes longer.

It was so ordered.

The next speaker was Principal Isaac T. Johnson, Friends' School, Wilmington, Del.

Mr. JOHNSON said:—"I am in an embarrassing position, having to follow four college men and preparatory men, to state what the future of the American college will be, and to do this in five minutes. There are many things which the preparatory school men might tell the college men."

He then read the following paper:

The future of the (American) college may be viewed from the standpoint of a college president or manager who has the responsibility of its direction.

Or, from the standpoint of one who has a son to send.

Or it may be viewed as a factor in our unorganized, or undeveloped system of education.

The first may safely be left with the parties most interested. The second may be considered in connection with the third.

The high schools and preparatory schools have their limitations and when these have been reached the college should be prepared to perform its functions.

This is, as I take it, to continue and enlarge upon the training already received, to make cultured citizens and not learned specialists. The province of the university is to undertake special research and investigation; to deal with minds which show special aptitude for original investigation.

The college may take the student through P. G. work—and no doubt should—into the borderland of university work—through post-graduate work, but the line should be pretty clearly drawn for the college. At the beginning it should not do the work of the preparatory school, nor on the other hand should it attempt with the limitations of its resources—the courses of a university. We are pleased to notice that the

* Not published in the PROCEEDINGS.

president of one of the smaller colleges of New England, in a recent report, says, "This college can never become a great university." His college does its work well and his men leave the college as cultured all-round men, even if they are not specialists in the world of science or foot-ball.

When, as soon as the true position of the college has been recognized a reorganization will take place and in some way—by the suggestion and advice of some decemvirate, perhaps—the colleges which can do only preparatory work will become recognized as preparatory schools—or as academies—a term once much in use in certain sections.

Colleges, now weak and struggling with the expense and outlay necessary to the maintenance of a large staff of specialists and expensive laboratories, will become more efficient by reorganizing their work and directing their energies into fewer courses.

They will maintain scholarships at universities for their best students, and these will be sometimes awarded to young men before they have graduated and who have shown marked ability for work beyond the scope of their college.

The colleges of the future will also strengthen themselves by some form of union and co-operation in work. Just what this form will be we cannot tell.

There is a larger and ever-increasing number of applicants for admission to college.

The cost of obtaining a college education is great and the management of many colleges appear not to discourage extravagant outlays on the part of true students. Both operate to keep out a large number of students who otherwise would attend college. The future of the college depends upon what wise arrangement is made to keep the advantages of college training within the reach of the largest possible number of people.

The advantages and disadvantages of small colleges naturally comes into the discussion of this question.

The small colleges are ambitious to become large ones and the large and crowded colleges are casting about for the best plan to sub-divide their students to obtain the best results for the individual and to avoid the evils which arise among large bodies of young and undisciplined people. Public sentiment already is having its influence in demanding that the large colleges must arrange for stricter and non-personal supervision of young men, and such as only small colleges now must

successfully give. Principals of preparatory schools come into contact with this sentiment and parents are realizing that there is something besides numbers and equipments which make a college.

To conclude I will quote the words of a writer in a recent number of the *Forum*.

Thomas Davidson, in a recent number of the *Forum*, aptly says :

"The wise parent in trying to select a college for his son, will ask first, not where the most learned professors are (still less, of course, where the best base-ball team is, or where most sons of millionaires congregate !), but where the tone of social life is purest and manliest ; where the young men behave neither as young monkeys nor as rakes ; where the conditions for complete moral autonomy are most fully established. At the same time he will ask what college best understands its business—which is to impart that culture, intellectual and moral, which is essential to free manhood, and does not attempt to forestall the university by dabbling in professional knowledge or erudition."

CHAIRMAN :—Free discussion is in order ; we will be glad to hear from any one of the delegates who are present, or from any of our friends, who are upon the floor of the house.

Mr. DEWEY :—I find in hearing these papers that I agree with the papers on the extreme sides. I find myself in thorough sympathy with all that has been said both on the part of the higher grades and also with all that has been said in behalf of the small college, and I believe that the truth is somewhere between these two. Perhaps if we take the wisdom that has come from these extreme views we shall get the best results. I would call attention to two or three things suggested about conferring the M. A. degree in Mr. Sharpless' paper. I take issue with him there. The college should no more give the university master's degree than a college should grant a baccalaureate degree. We get the same ages that Professor James pointed out. In our State, taken from the German system, we have four years in the high school and four years in the college. One word on President Warfield's comment about the college which grows up like a boy,—as the boy grows up his trousers get up to his knees. There is another kind of boy whose trousers grow and the boy doesn't. That is the trouble with some of these colleges Professor Sharpless was speaking of, the trousers are too big for the boy. If the boy doesn't grow the trousers will be sure to trip up the boy. This will be the case with the colleges if they are going to ignore the very thing which they most need, but in every case, as soon as they find a way of getting a thing, they are soon reconciled. For instance, about the dormitory—I never yet saw a college that was not, like Saul of Tarsus, converted as soon as somebody gave the money to build a dormitory. They at once agree that students should have a home life.

Professor LANGDON, of Bordentown :—I would propose a word of caution to preparatory schools against attempting to be colleges as well as to colleges to avoid attempting to be universities. I suggested to the

speaker of last evening, that the next time he speaks that piece, he put that in. I know of quite a number of preparatory schools that are assuming a college air and trying actually to get themselves chartered to give degrees; it is the American idea to be a little more than we are; a man who has a thousand dollars lives as though he had two thousand, his wife as though he had three thousand and his daughters as though he had ten thousand.

President REID, of Washington College :—In discussing the question a point occurred to my mind of this kind: if we are talking about the future of the horse, the gentlemen seem to take it for granted that we are talking about the little or big horses and not about middle-size horses. It seems to me the question is, What is the natural size of a college? What size should a college be? There are teachers here all round me who know just how big a class they can teach. I have about twenty-five or thirty, and that is all I can handle. We can very soon find out what the really natural size of the class that each teacher should have under his care. It should not be more than twenty-five or thirty; if you get beyond that, the teacher is not going to benefit his scholars at all. You will find the real normal size of the college, just as the normal size of the man is 150 pounds. The normal size of the college should be 150. I think a little college, like a little man, has just as good right of existence as the overgrown man. I will say this, that if the money that is put into these great big overgrown colleges could be taken out and reorganized, it would accomplish a great deal more good—if it were divided into three, four, five parts and distributed over the country the results would be better. And instead of having these great big, overgrown affairs which are not doing near as much good as smaller ones are doing, have them divided up over the country and put where they are needed, the results would be better for all parties concerned.

Mr. DEWEY :—May I inquire, should we have the large horse also cut up and distributed all around?

A DELEGATE :—I speak because the association until this year had not had any public schools of the grade which I represent on the list. And since we have been put on the list for the definite purpose of giving us a hearing in the association on this matter, I simply wish to ask the attention of the association to the preparatory schools of the grade which I represent. I represent the town schools, the schools where we have but one teacher perhaps to do all the preparatory work. The question is whether, in the judgment of the college men, we public schools of that kind should attempt to do preparatory work. Either a course in the college must be adapted to these schools, to make it possible for them to enter, or else we will have to give up college preparatory work. I know we cannot possibly reach the limits that are now made by colleges, particularly in the classics; in mathematics, etc., we can. I want to suggest to the association that some attention given to this particular phase of the education problem might do some good.

Professor HOADLEY :—I have had fifteen years' experience in the public schools of this country, and I know it can be done. I know some of the best men that have been sent to college have come out of the public schools. They are doing a great work to-day in the educational work.

The convention took up miscellaneous business.

Dr. McGill's resolutions came first in order.

A DELEGATE:—If the different institutions are to make concessions for the advantage of the other institutions, it is becoming that the concessions should begin at the top, that the example be set to the colleges and preparatory schools. We are in these resolutions expected to make considerable concessions for each other's good, the example should be set by the universities. The financial problem is at the bottom of the whole difficulty.

Professor BIRDSALL:—I somewhat doubt the propriety of its passage. I feel very heartily in favor of any measure whatever that will assist us in straightening out our ideas and reconciling the conflict from which we have all suffered, and which was so clearly laid before us in last night's address. I should have preferred that the resolutions should refer to such a committee those problems in somewhat more general terms. We are talking about fitting schools—it is not fitting for college so much that we are engaged in in the sense of training a boy who already wants to go to college as it is building up in him an appreciation of culture and a desire for it. So that a boy when he comes to college age will not only be prepared for college but finds himself wanting to go to college.

Dr. MCKENZIE:—At the close of a recent meeting of this body a gentleman remarked to me that it was one of the distinctive mercies of Divine Providence that the Lord permitted teachers' associations. It is the feeling on the part of many that we have come to the settlement of problems at the eleventh hour that have been taken up and passed to the satisfaction of the majority of the men who settle every question before this meeting. I deem it very unwise that even the appointment of a committee should be made at this time. These resolutions propose first that there shall be descriptive and circumscriptive statements made defining the three grades of institutions represented here. This is a very wise body, but there are not ten men in this room, or in this country, who can make such statements. Already the representatives of two of the leading institutions of the association have stated that they will instantly withdraw from the body if the attempt were made.

Secondly, it is proposed to determine what studies shall be pursued in each of these grades of institutions. It was clearly the dominating note of the admirable addresses from the college presidents that we are to have a certain amount of foreordination. This association does its greatest work by simply leveling public opinion,—doing it by the general means of reaching the heart and the head, not only of the wise men who are here, but of the fathers and mothers of the boys and girls we are trying to train. Those of you who have attempted to carry certain requirements, have already learned that the most hopeless thing is to force upon a body of schoolmasters or college professors your personal conviction; you must attain this end by discussing a good deal, and talking a good deal, and thinking a good deal. We have not time for the talking here on this occasion. I offer as an amendment that this resolution be referred to our Executive Committee with power to take such action as they may see fit.

Dr. MCGILL :—I would like to know what there is in this resolution about subjects to be taught, there is not a word about that subject in the resolution at all.

CHAIRMAN :—The motion before us to appoint a Committee of Ten to consider the report on minimum grades in the three classes of institutions—that is the original motion—now the motion is to refer this motion or question brought before us in the shape of a resolution to the Executive Committee, instead of to a Committee of Ten, who shall during the coming year sit upon this question and present us a report at our next meeting.

President GOUCHER :—I understood there were two items in this resolution in which it differed from the motion presented by the original mover. They were these, that this paper should be referred to a Committee of Ten and left to a discussion by that committee to report whether it be a definite report on the subject or a motion of expediency.

Dr. MCKENZIE :—Doctor Goucher has stated the matter correctly.

DELEGATE :—Is it the intention to give the Executive Committee full power in this matter? If so, I am certainly opposed to it.

Dr. MCKENZIE :—The intention was to give the Executive Committee power to decide whether it should be again referred to this association, as they have power over our programs generally.

Dr. MCGILL :—The objection to this reference to the Executive Committee is this. It is a much more decisive measure than I want to enter upon at this time, the whole thing is tentative. The Executive Committee rules the association, their decisions have to come here for our approval, that is true, but we are more committed to this measure if the Executive Committee should decide to report favorably upon it next year, much more, than we should be by the method proposed. The method proposed is to require a matter of so much importance to be referred to this committee and considered, the whole subject specially, and reported next year as to whether it is expedient or otherwise to go forward. If that committee make a report of that character and recommend the adoption of the resolutions, then the whole subject comes up here again next year for reconsideration. We are going to pass these resolutions, or resolutions equivalent to them, I see the drift of public opinion; you may consider it as long as you please, but you will adopt it in the end. I am confident that somebody like this will adopt a method that will prevent the different institutions from interfering one with another in their work.

A DELEGATE :—As a means of enabling this motion to get before this association in the way Dr. McGill would prefer, I move that the words "with power" be stricken out. I offer this as an amendment.

CHAIRMAN :—This is a simple reference of the whole subject to the Executive Committee, with instructions to report at the next meeting as to whether this subject shall be at that time discussed or not. It is the reference by the association of this subject to the Executive Committee as one of the themes for the next convention.

Dr. MCKENZIE :—I rise to ask this question: If this question is to be referred to the Executive Committee instead of a Committee of Ten, I vote for it, especially if that committee is to be appointed at this late hour.

A DELEGATE :—I move, as a substitute resolution, that the matter be referred to the Executive Committee, with instructions for the committee to report on this paper.

CHAIRMAN :—Reduce your motion to writing.

The amendment to the resolution accepted by Dr. McGill.

CHAIRMAN :—It is proposed to refer to the Executive Committee, with instructions to report upon the advisability of discussing the question at our next meeting as one of the themes.

Motion carried.

Professor LANGDON :—I propose a matter which has come to my mind in conference with quite a number of the members—a matter to come up at our next meeting :

Resolved, That the Executive Committee provide a session, or part of a session, at our next annual meeting for interchanges of experiences bearing upon school administration, arrangement, order of studies, and other practical questions of the school life.

The reason I offer it is simply this : I have noticed that whenever in the discussions the speaker told of personal experience in modes of administration, etc., there was a quick interest, an evident sense of receiving profit ; and I believe it would be an excellent thing to have, at some of our meetings, what would be called among the Methodist people an experience meeting.

Dr. MCGILL :—That is a matter that ought to go to the Executive Committee.

The SECRETARY :—If you will make that suggestion to the Executive Committee, I think they will consider it very carefully. It would be better to bring it up in that way than to bind them to any definite action.

The question was put and the motion lost.

Professor E. P. CHEYNEY, University of Pennsylvania :—I move the discussion of history be put in the hands of a Committee of Ten to be appointed to report at the next meeting, and put in power to print their recommendations and to lay them before the association.

CHAIRMAN :—The motion is to appoint a Committee of Ten on entrance requirements in history.

Motion made to refer to Executive Committee. Not seconded.

A DELEGATE :—I should like to ask whether this body desires to take up one subject after another and destroy the autonomy of all the colleges and reduce the colleges to a cast-iron model? We ought to consider, before we take up one subject after another and appoint committees of ten, whether we will like the educational result.

CHAIRMAN :—The question is on reference to the Executive Committee of this subject.

Motion lost.

CHAIRMAN :—The original resolution was passed upon and lost—the whole subject lost.

Professor JAMES :—I would like to move that the Executive Committee be instructed to consider the advisability of appointing a committee on the question of college statistics.

CHAIRMAN :—Motion on the advisability of forming a committee for collecting college statistics to report to the Executive Committee.

Motion carried. (See end of volume.)

The Chairman appointed the following committees. (See end of volume.)

Committee to confer with other similar associations. (See end of volume.)

Committee on English Studies. (See end of volume.)

The SECRETARY read a short letter from Dr. T. L. Seip, one of the founders of this association, regretting his inability to be present.

The SECRETARY :—The association has for the next meeting three cordial invitations—one from Lafayette College, by President Warfield ; one from Pittsburg, from the High School ; and one from the University of Pennsylvania. I move this be referred to the Executive Committee, as it is part of their business to decide where the meetings are to be held, and that the question be decided in the next few weeks in order that it may appear in the PROCEEDINGS.

Motion carried.

Professor BUTLER :—I move that we do now extend to the authorities of the Johns Hopkins University, the Woman's College and the Bryn Mawr School, of Baltimore, our hearty thanks for the cordial reception we have received, and for the contribution they have made to this association.

Motion unanimously adopted.

Dr. SACHS :—Many members of the association entertain the same feeling in reference to the secretary. We have in Dr. Adams one who is remarkably able in the various and arduous duties of his office. I hope the body is ready to pass a vote of thanks to the secretary.

Motion carried.

Dr. GILMAN :—Within a few months past two of the oldest, two of the most distinguished, and two of the most useful men connected with the education of the Middle States and Maryland have been called away. You all know to whom I refer : President Welling, of Columbian, and President McCosh, of Princeton. I do not dare trust myself to say more than I have done. I will, however, propose this resolution, that the presiding officer of this meeting be requested to draft a letter to the widow of Dr. McCosh, and to the widow of Dr. Welling expressing the respect that this association has for their memory. And that these letters be inserted in our minutes.

Motion carried.

Professor Langdon inquired as to the number of delegates present.

The secretary informed him that there were about two hundred registered.

Dr. WARFIELD ; I offer a motion in reference to the books to be read.

I move that this association earnestly recommends that all institutions adopting the English admission requirements shall insist on satisfactory evidence that such candidate has carefully read the whole of each of the prescribed books.

On motion the convention adjourned at 12.25 p. m.

Committee to confer with other similar associations :

Professor Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia College.

President D. C. Gilman, of the Johns Hopkins University.

Professor John Quincy Adams, of the University of Pennsylvania.

Committee on English Studies :

Professor Francis H. Stoddard, University of the City of New York.

Professor George R. Carpenter, Columbia College.

Mr. Wilson Farrand, Newark Academy.

Committee on College Statistics (appointed by the Executive Committee :)

Professor Roland P. Falkner, University of Pennsylvania.

Professor Richmond Mayo-Smith, Columbia College.

Mr. Talcott Williams, Philadelphia Press.

Principal C. H. Thurber, Colgate Academy.

Principal T. W. Sidwell, Friends' Select School, Washington, D. C.

REPORTS OF COMMITTEES.

The Executive Committee met in the Faculty Room of the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa., May 9, 1894.

There were present : Professor H. B. Adams, Professor John B. Kieffer, President Isaac Sharpless and Professor John Quincy Adams.

It was moved, seconded and voted that the following be the subjects to be discussed at the convention in 1894 :

1. The Place and Teaching of History and Politics in School and College.

2. Discussion of the Report on the Requirements for Entrance Examinations in English of the Committee of Ten, appointed by the Association at the last Annual Convention.

3. The Future of the College.

It was moved and seconded that requests for copies of the PROCEEDINGS should be granted at the discretion of the secretary, and that no charge be made for copies thus furnished. Carried.

The Executive Committee decided by correspondence to hold the convention of 1895 at Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.

In accordance with President Gilman's resolution, the following letters of sympathy were sent :

DECEMBER 1, 1894.

Mrs. JAMES MCCOSH.

Dear Madame:—The Association of the Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, in annual session at Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore, has to-day, upon motion of President D. C. Gilman, instructed me, as the presiding officer of the association, to extend to you the assurance of our profound sympathy, with you in view of the great bereavement which has recently overtaken you, in the death of your honored husband, whom we claimed as an associate, and whose advent to the ranks of American college presidents distinctly marked an epoch not only in the life of the great school over which he was called to preside, but in the history of educational developments in America. On behalf of the association, permit me to express to you not only our sympathy but our appreciation of the exalted intellect and the noble Christian character of the great man whose removal from your side has

been a loss not only to his family, but to the nation, among whose most distinguished citizens he had come to hold a place.

I am, dear Madame, with assurances of most profound respect and sympathy,

Very sincerely yours,

W. J. HOLLAND,

*Vice-President Association of Colleges and
Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland.*

DECEMBER 1, 1894.

Mrs. J. C. WELLING.

Dear Madame:—The Association of the Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, in annual session at Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore, has, upon motion of President D. C. Gilman, instructed me, as the presiding officer of the association, to extend to you on their behalf the assurance of our profound sympathy with you in view of the sore bereavement you have sustained during the past year in the death of your honored husband, who was a member of the association and one of the vice-presidents for the present year. I am not only instructed by the association to convey to you this assurance of our sympathy, but to express to you at the same time our sense of the great intellectual power and exalted character of Dr. Welling, and our appreciation of the distinguished services which he rendered during his lifetime to the cause of learning and the education of youth.

I am, with assurances of most profound respect and sympathy,

Very sincerely yours,

W. J. HOLLAND,

*Vice-President Association of Colleges and
Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland.*

TREASURER'S REPORT.

TO THE ASSOCIATION OF THE COLLEGES AND PREPARATORY SCHOOLS
IN THE MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND.

Gentlemen.:—I herewith present to you my report of the condition of the treasury of your association for the year ending with the date of this convention, viz., November, 30, 1894, as contained in the accompanying detailed statement and vouchers.

Of the colleges and schools on the roll of the association for the year 1893-94, twenty-six have paid their deferred dues, and six are yet to hear from. Of the 112 institutions now on the roll seventy-seven have paid their annual dues and thirty-five have deferred payment. In addition to the surplus now in hand there is therefore due to the treasury the sum of \$205, making the amount available for the expenses of 1894-95 \$836.62.

During the year two colleges paid delayed assessments for 1892-93. I append an abstract of receipts and disbursements.

Receipts.

Balance in hand, November 30, 1893,	\$573 70
Delayed assessments for 1892-93,	20 00
Deferred dues for 1893-94, from twenty-six institutions,	130 00
Annual dues for 1894-95, from seventy-seven institutions,	385 00
Total receipts,	\$1108 70

Disbursements.

Expenses of the Executive Committee,	\$35 52
For Postage, Expressage, Clerk-hire, etc.,	49 22
For Printing,	301 94
For Expenses of the Special Committee on Entrance Requirements in English,	90 40
Total disbursements,	\$477 08
Balance in hand for expenses of 1894-95,	\$631 62
Membership dues unpaid,	205 00
Amount possible available for the current year,	\$836 62

Respectfully submitted,

JOHN B. KIEFFER.

LANCASTER, PA., November 30, 1894.

The above account has been regularly audited and found correct with vouchers, as stated.

H. P. WARREN, } *Auditing Committee.*
N. MURRAY, }

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS, *Secretary.*

CONSTITUTION

OF THE

ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND PREPARATORY SCHOOLS

IN THE MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND.

ARTICLE I.

NAME AND OBJECT.

SECTION 1. The name of this Association shall be THE ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND PREPARATORY SCHOOLS IN THE MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND.

SEC. 2. The object of the Association shall be to consider the qualifications for candidates for admission to college and the methods of admission; the character of the preparatory schools; the courses of study to be pursued in the colleges and schools, including their order, number, etc.; the relative number of required and elective studies in the various classes; the kind and character of degrees conferred; methods of organization, government, etc.; the relations of the colleges to the State and to the general educational systems of the State and country; and any and all other questions affecting the welfare of the colleges and schools, or calculated to secure their proper advancement.

ARTICLE II.

MEMBERSHIP AND VOTING.

SECTION 1. Any College, Normal or High School, or other school preparing students for college, in the Middle States and Maryland, may be received into membership in this Association upon approval of the Executive Committee.

SEC. 2. In transacting the ordinary business of the meetings of the Association all delegates present shall be entitled to vote, but on all questions requiring a decision *by ballot* each institution represented shall have but one vote.

ARTICLE III.

OFFICERS.

The officers of the Association shall be a President, one Vice-President from each State represented in the Association, a Secretary, a Treasurer, and an Executive Committee of four members, together with the President, Secretary and Treasurer, who shall be, *ex officio*, members of the Executive Committee. These officers shall be chosen at the annual meeting, by ballot, and shall hold office for one year, or until their successors have been elected. The Executive Committee shall elect its own chairman.

ARTICLE IV.

DUTIES OF OFFICERS.

SECTION 1. The President, or in his absence the Vice-President, shall preside at all meetings of the Association, and sign all orders upon the Treasurer.

SEC. 2. The Secretary shall keep a record of all business transacted by the Association and conduct the necessary correspondence.

SEC. 3. The Treasurer shall receive and hold all moneys of the Association and pay out the same upon a written order of the President.

SEC. 4. The Executive Committee shall prepare business for the Association, fix time and place of annual meeting, call special meetings, and act for the Association in its recess; but the acts of this Committee shall always be subject to the approval of the Association.

ARTICLE V.

MEETINGS.

There shall be one annual meeting of the Association, for the election of officers and the transaction of other business. Unless determined by the Association the date and place of holding this meeting shall be decided by the Executive Committee, which Committee shall also have power to call special meetings of the Association.

ARTICLE VI.

EXPENSES.

To defray the expenses of holding the meetings of the Association, conducting the correspondence, printing, etc., the sum of five dollars shall be assessed upon each of the institutions represented in the Association, and any deficiency which may occur shall be provided for by special action of the Association.

ARTICLE VII.

POWER OF THE ASSOCIATION.

Decisions by the Association, of questions not pertaining to its organization, shall always be considered *advisory*, and not *mandatory*, each institution preserving its own individuality and liberty of action upon all other subjects considered.

ARTICLE VIII.

RELIGIOUS TESTS.

No religious tests shall be imposed in deciding upon membership or other privileges in this Association.

ARTICLE IX.

A QUORUM.

Representatives from one-third of the institutions belonging to the Association shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business.

ARTICLE X.

CHANGE OF THE CONSTITUTION.

This Constitution may be altered or amended at any regular meeting by a vote, by ballot, of two-thirds of the institutions represented at said meeting.

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